

EXAMINING THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN PRE-K THROUGH SECOND
GRADE TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS AND THIRD THROUGH FOURTH GRADE
TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF CULTURAL AWARENESS AND BELIEFS IN
ONE URBAN DISTRICT

A Dissertation

by

OUIDA COLLEEN PLIMPER

Submitted to the Office of Graduate Studies of
Texas A&M University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

December 2009

Major Subject: Curriculum and Instruction

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ABSTRACT

Examining the Differences between Pre-K through Second Grade Teachers' Perceptions
and Third through Fourth Grade Teachers' Perceptions of Cultural Awareness
and Beliefs in One Urban District.

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The purpose of this study was to examine archival data collected from the administration of the Cultural Awareness and Belief Inventory (CABI) (Webb-Johnson & Carter, 2005) in an urban district located in the southwestern United States. Specifically, the study examined whether differences exist between Pre-K through second grade urban teachers' perceptions and third through fourth grade urban teachers' perceptions of cultural awareness and beliefs as measured by the CABI in one urban district.

Of the respondents, 399 Pre-K through second grade teachers' perceptions and 219 third through fourth grade teachers' perceptions of eight factors were measured by the CABI. These factors included: A) Teacher Beliefs, B) School Climate, C) Culturally Responsive Classroom Management, D) Home and Community Support, E) Cultural Awareness, F) Curriculum and Instruction, G) Cultural Sensitivity and H) Teacher Efficacy (Roberts-Walter, 2007). Further, by comparing the perceptions of the

Pre-K through second grade teachers and those of the third through fourth grade teachers, this study investigated the differences between the perceptions of the teachers held responsible for their students' test scores and those teachers employed in grades in which students are not given state-mandated tests.

The difference between the Pre-K through second grade teachers' perceptions and the third through fourth grade teachers' perceptions were indicated in only one factor of the eight measured by the CABI. A difference in both groups' perceptions was determined in the factor, Cultural Sensitivity. The results indicated that the Pre-K through second grade teachers' were more culturally sensitive than the third through fourth grade teachers.

DEDICATION

First and foremost, I thank God for providing me the strength to pursue this degree and pray that my work will be pleasing unto him.

This work is also dedicated to my consistently supportive husband, Larry. Your encouragements, patience, love and due to those great pep-talks, I have finally completed my goal. Thank you, you gave me the strength to do this, I will always love you.

Also, to my loving mother and father, who supported me in more ways than one, I do this also for them, for all the love and understanding they have innately planted in my soul. For my precious mother, who taught me respect for all humankind; for guiding me in a Christian home; and teaching me to live by the Bible, I miss your laugh. I love you both so much. Thanks to my father-in-law for his encouragement to pursue higher educational goals, I know he is rejoicing with me in this achievement.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

During the fall of 2008, approximately 74.0 million persons were enrolled in American schools and colleges in the United States (National Center for Educational Statistics, [NCES], 2009). According to future enrollment projection populations will set records each year from 2009 through 2018, ascending to an estimated 53.9 million students in public elementary and secondary schools by 2018 [NCES], 2009). Additionally, according to the National Center for Educational Statistics [NCES], 2009), averages of 3.7 million elementary and secondary teachers were engaged in classrooms throughout America. The student population of public elementary schools is expected to increase 10 percent between 2008 and 2017 (NCES, 2009). Along with the growing student population, our nation's public schools are facing the challenge of accountability as mandated by the U. S. Department of Education (USDOE, 2009). Adequate yearly progress (AYP) is required for children and notes their achievements in reading and mathematics. By the year 2014, school districts must implement specific interventions, which can include replacing staff if AYP goals are not met (USDOE, 2009).

Accountability, as mandated by the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act of 2001, compelled states to implement statewide accountability systems. These provided information regarding the educational progress of all public school children using standardized tests scores in 3rd through 8th grade in reading and mathematics (USDOE,

The style and format for this dissertation follow that of *The Journal of Educational Research*.

2009). The NCLB Act (2001) mandates states establish standards to be taught throughout the public schools. The goal of the NCLB Act (2001) is for students to attain the required standards to become academically successful. Additionally, NCLB (2001) requires every student to be reading and solving math problems at or above their grade level by 2014. High-stakes testing or standardized state test, are utilized to compare student's scores with the required standards. In some states, these tests were used as gate keepers at specific grade levels. At these gate-keeping grade levels, test results determine whether students are promoted to the next grade level or are retained. High-stakes testing and accountability are the impetus of the national educational policy with its reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act in 2002 as the No Child Left Behind Act (McNeil, 2005).

Furthermore, kindergarten exit requirements have lead to retention rates (Shepard & Smith, 1988; Walsh, 1989) thus raising concerns regarding formal instruction and appropriateness of testing for young children (Elkind, 1994; Zigler, 1987). Research in early childhood literature place the responsibility of assessments on teachers, thereby, putting them in a management role, however authentic assessments is built on children's learning and understanding (Bergman, 1993). Furthermore, these assessments provide extensions to the learning process (Bergman, 1993). To assess a child's progress in skills, knowledge, and behavior on multiple occasions, teachers need to have the knowledge of normal child development, and trained to use common classroom assessment instruments (Meisels, 1996; Ratcliff, 2001; Wiggins, 1993a).

Salahu-Du, Persky, Miller (2008), emphasized that standardized testing can repair the educational system by empowering parents of students of color to verify that teachers are teaching the mandated standards, adequate resources are available in schools, and ensure that high quality teachers are instructing their children. Moreover, according to Annual Yearly Progress, urban schools in different regions of the U. S. have been successful in reading, math and science (Salahu-Du, Persky, Miller, 2008).

The educational departments of our nation's largest school systems cite reasons for student failure as: poor teacher quality and inadequate resources, while administrators and educators fail to accept the premise that all students can learn at high levels (Darling-Hammond, 1991).

Urban Schools

Poverty rates for children attending public schools have increased significantly. Approximately 90 percent of children living in poverty are found in urban schools (Sharpton, Casbergue, & Cafide, 2002). Margaret Spellings, the Secretary of Education, announced, "The goal is to help educators act now to help schools in every stage of improvement; we must take dramatic action to improve our lowest-performing schools" (The Nation's Report Card, March, 2008, p. 1).

According to Howey (2002), urban schools have higher enrollments of students of color than those of suburban or rural schools. However, fewer resources are available and teachers have less control over the curriculum than teachers in less bureaucratic settings (Howey, 2002). Often urban teachers exhibit lower expectations of students of color and base their decisions on false or stereotypical information (Ferguson, 1998;

Taylor, 1979). Baker's study (1999) provided evidence that school satisfaction is influenced by teacher-student interactions (p. 68). Baker's findings of perceptions of a caring, supportive relationship between the teacher, student and a positive classroom environment related to school satisfaction as early as third grade (p.67). Further, Baker concluded that assessing teachers' perceptions, beliefs and biases could bring about a better understanding of the classroom environment and the school (p.68).

Examining urban teachers' beliefs provide novice teachers a comparison of information into their own beliefs, looking at their Culturally Responsive Classroom Management, Teacher Efficacy, Cultural Awareness, Home and Community in the hopes all students and teachers will be successful in their roles (Watson, Charner-Laird, Kirkpatrick, Szczesiui & Gordon, 2006, p. 407). Larke (1990) recognized the need for teachers to be schooled in multicultural education and develop cultural awareness and respect for students from diverse backgrounds.

Alidou, Larke and Carter (2002) professed "the purpose of multicultural education is a noble one, teaching for the promotion of equality and quality in education; moreover, teaching for respect of human cultural diversity" (p. 39). In requiring teachers to be educated in multicultural education, they would be providing culturally, linguistically, ethnically, economically diverse (CLEED) (P. Larke, personal communication, September, 2002) students in a culturally responsive classroom in which all students can be successful academically, culturally and socially in the real world.

Haberman (1991) stated “few urban schools that serve as models of students learning have teachers who maintain control by establishing trust and involving students” (p. 310). Further, Milner (2002) asserted

Teachers, in a general sense, experience difficult times in adverse situations that could cause them to leave the profession almost daily. In light of the high turnover rate among teachers, one of the things that we need to understand is what keeps a teacher in the profession in the midst of difficult situations that most (if not all) teachers experience (p. 28).

According to Irvine and Armento (2001), studies have “led researchers to conclude that cultural differences, particularly differences among mainstream and diverse students’ approaches to learning, are major contributors to the school failure of students of color” (p. 489). Often a teacher’s first encounter with ideas about equitable teaching and learning occurs in teacher education courses; thus, causing them to challenge his or her prior experiences and cultural beliefs (Watson, Charner-Laird, Kirkpatrick, Szczesiui & Gordon, 2006, p. 407). Additionally, novice teachers emerged with mixed explanations such as, “urban students have greater needs; urban kids do not value education; or urban students do not have support outside the classroom” (Watson, et al., 2006, p. 401). Moreover, “programs must help prospective teachers in learning to recognize, expose, and eradicate racism both in themselves and in society” (Watson, et al., 2006, p. 407). Further, in a study on effective urban teachers, Watson, et al. (2006) suggested that teachers be educated in understanding how their own life experiences, schooling

contexts, and the setting in which they currently teach, shape the way they teach (p. 407).

“Research on the cultures of teaching has begun to replace the image of a passive teacher, molded by bureaucracy and buffeted by external forces, with an image of the teacher as an active agent” (Feiman-Nemser & Floden, 1986, p. 523). Training teachers to be active agents may change the educational environment to one of positive change in the road to culturally responsive schools.

Culturally Responsive Pedagogy, Socio-Cultural Theory, and Constructivist Learning Theory

The constructs of this descriptive study utilize the works of the Cultural Responsive Pedagogy (Ladson-Billings, 1995; Gay 2000), the Socio-Cultural Theory (Vygotsky, 1962; 1978) and the Constructivist Theory (Bruner, 1966). Cultural Responsive Pedagogy discusses teacher, student and the importance of the students’ culture impacting their learning. Socio-Cultural Theory acknowledges that the social and cultural environments impact student learning, while the Constructivist Theory entails how knowledge is learned from past experiences, present experiences, and group experiences to acquire knowledge.

Cultural Responsive Pedagogy

According to Richards, Brown, and Forde (2004) today’s classrooms are more diverse, thus requiring teachers to educate students whose culture may be different than their own. Teachers are expected to teach students representing a variety of cultural backgrounds, ethnicities, languages, socio-economic levels, and abilities (Gollnick &

Chinn, 2002). This challenge for teacher requires a theoretically sound and culturally responsive pedagogy.

Teachers need to build a classroom culture where all students can learn and be successful (Richards, Brown, Forde, 2004). Culturally responsive pedagogy assists and sustains the achievement of all students through the following three dimensions:

The three dimensions are as follows:

1. Institutional Dimension: administrative policies and values in the educational process. The dimension's focus is on the organization of the school, school policies and procedures, as well as community involvement. Further, this dimension is concerned with the effect the previous three have on students and teachers as well as success for both.
2. Personal Dimension: the cognitive and emotional development teachers must go through to become culturally responsive. This transformation of becoming culturally responsive begins with teachers participating in self-reflection. Being honest in examining their beliefs and attitudes of themselves and toward others is an important part of the process.
3. Instructional Dimension: examines the implementation of classroom materials, strategies and activities to not to marginalize each student's cultural experience. Tools of instruction should be compatible with students' culture. Failing to address this dimension causes a disconnect between the school and the students, thus, students' needs are not met.

These three dimensions according to Richards, Brown, and Forde (2004) are crucial in the process of implementing cultural responsive pedagogy. Culturally responsive pedagogical strategies adopted by culturally responsive teachers include:

1. Making meaningful, relevant, useful learning outcomes important to every child (Ladson-Billings, 1994; Nieto, 2000).
2. Believing that each child can learn and develop to their maximum level of potential (Darling-Hammond, 2000).
3. Teachers holding high, personal expectations for each child (Darling-Hammond, (2000).
4. Encouraging classroom climates built on social justice, democracy, and equity (Delpit, 1988; Villegas & Lucas, 2002).
5. Promoting individual empowerment, self-efficacy, positive self-regard, and belief in societal reform (Banks, 1993).
6. Believing that the teachers' role is to model valuing diversity as well as human commonalities (Green, 1993).
7. Developing positive, supportive classroom learning environments, while grounding them in mutual and true respect for cultural diversity (Cochran-Smith, 1995).
8. Fostering classroom climates which facilitate a variety of relational, communication, thinking, and learning styles through the use of instructional techniques (Gay, 1994).

According to Richards, Brown and Ford (2004), “cultural responsive pedagogy recognizes and utilizes the students’ culture and language in instruction, and ultimately respects the students’ personal and community identities” (p. 7). Gay (2000) emphasized that culturally responsive teaching has many components and teachers need guidance and support in implementing them. Further, Gay (2000) stressed teachers who care about their students, have high expectations of them, persist in their efforts to support every student, and diligently continue to ensure expectations are realized exhibit culturally responsive teaching attributes.

Furthermore, these teachers know that “a genuine commitment in transforming educational opportunities for their ethnically diverse students requires that they have knowledge of the cultural characteristics of different ethnic groups” (Gay, 2000, p. 209). Moreover, they understand the ways culture affects teaching and learning, as well as pedagogical skills for translating this knowledge into new teaching-learning opportunities and experiences” (Gay, 2000, p. 209).

Additionally, Gay (2000) advocates that teachers make connections between students’ lives, experiences outside of school and curriculum content as being central to empowering ethnically diverse students to academic success (p. 111). Bernard (1999) stated, “research suggests that when schools are places where the basic needs for support, respect and belonging are met, motivation for learning is fostered” (p. 87).

Al-Bataineh, Brooks and Abu Al-Rub (2008) stated multiculturalism should “teach respect for all cultures as opposed to focusing on the majority subgroups. The idea of the integration of all citizens creating the American culture should be

acknowledged (Al-Bataineh, Brooks and Abu Al-Rub, 2008, p. 9). For the philosophy of multiculturalism to be successful and truly effective, it “must be naturally, seamlessly integrated into all aspects of the instructional process” (Al-Bataineh, Brooks & Abu Al-Rub, 2008, p. 9). Accordingly, multiculturalism needs to be merged within the curriculum through a three-phase process, which includes awareness, acceptance, development and implementation of strategies. The main goal is to assist students and see “American” in an inclusive way (Al-Bataineh, Brooks & Abu Al-Rub, 2008).

Socio-cultural Theory

Vygotsky (1962, 1978) explained that an individual’s growth occurs within social and cultural groups. In a socio-cultural familiar environment, learning is enhanced. Vygotsky (1962, 1978) believed a child after age two developed cognitively through the child’s culture. Vygotsky (1978) stated “every function in the child’s culture development appears twice: first, on the social level, and later, on the individual level” (p. 57). “This approach emphasized the importance of socio-cultural forces in shaping the situation of a child’s development and learning.” The crucial role played by parents, teachers, peers, and community members is defined by the types of interaction occurring between children and their environments (Vygotsky 1978, p. 2). This theoretical position on problem solving and learning comes from two levels, the intrapsychological, or independent level, and the interpsychological level, a potential level achieved in conjunction with an experienced peer (Vygotsky, 1978). On the independent level, with individual completes task based on prior knowledge and his or her experiences (Vygotsky, 1978). However, the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) was a maturing

process not fully developed within an individual. However, interactions with a more experienced peer, or mentor, guided the novice learner to solve more complex problems through social interaction using signs and tools.

Constructivist Learning Theory

Bruner's (1966) constructivist theory framework for instruction was based on the study of cognition. Constructivist learning theory is an active process in which learners construct or build concepts or new ideas in addition to their current or past knowledge (Bruner 1966). A theoretical structure of instruction based on the constructivist theory addresses the following four major aspects of learning:

1. Predisposition toward learning;
2. Structuring a body of knowledge to be readily grasped by the learner;
3. Determining effective sequences in presenting material;
4. Establishing the nature and pacing of rewards and punishments (Bruner, 1966).

Further, Bruner emphasized that methods for structuring knowledge should result in simplifying, generating new propositions, and increasing the manipulation of information (Bruner, 1966).

The methods of constructivism emphasize students' ability to solve real-life, practical problems. Students typically worked in cooperative groups, rather than individually; additionally, the focus of their knowledge building was on projects that required solutions to problems, rather than on instructional sequences that require learning of certain content skills. Therefore, the job of the teacher in constructivist

models is to arrange for required resources and act as a guide to students, while they set their own goals and ‘teach themselves’ (Roblyer, Edwards, & Havriluk, 1997, p. 70).

Statement of the Problem

The student population in public elementary schools in the United States is expected to increase three percent from 2001 through 2011 (NCES, 2009). According to the National Center for Statistics (2009), averages of four million elementary and secondary teachers were engaged in classrooms throughout America. The NCLB Act of 2001 requires that a statewide accountability system be established to provide information regarding all public school children and their standardized scores in reading and mathematics in grades three through eight. Further, the students are required to be reading and solving math problems at or above their grade level by 2014 (USDOE, 2009).

Learning standards and goals set by each state and school district are required to meet adequate yearly progress (AYP) as mandated by NCLB (USDOE, 2009). Teachers throughout the country play significant roles in teaching and designing instruction to meet mandated state standards for their students. The NCLB Act of 2001 mandated states establish standards to be taught throughout the public schools. The goal of NCLB requires students to meet the required standards so that they can be successful.

According to Perreault (2000), teachers employed to teach grade levels at which students are required to take standardized tests deal with stress. The results from Perreault’s study concluded that pressure is being conveyed from the top administrative

levels to the classroom teachers. Thus, administrators are communicating to teachers, “If it ain’t on the test, don’t teach it” (Perreault, 2000, p. 707).

In addition, some teachers worry about whether or not their students are academically and emotionally prepared for this type of testing (Jones, Jones, Hardin, Chapman, Yarbrough, and Davis, 1999). Furthermore, teachers, employed at low performing probationary schools were threatened to be replaced unless the scores improve (Diamond & Spillane, 2004). Through these threats, administrators were able to press teachers to change their practices (Diamond & Spillane, 2004, p. 1157).

Presently, the largest urban districts are struggling with inadequate resources and poor teacher quality (Darling-Hammond, 2008). Further, some administrators and educators profess that they believe that not all children can learn (Darling-Hammond, 2008). Holm & Nations (1994) acknowledges that currently teachers are not equipped nor have the experiences to teach in an urban school. Teachers admit that they lack the knowledge of successfully interacting with children who represent different ethnic and social backgrounds than themselves (Holm & Nations, 1994). According to Darling-Hammond and Sykes (2003), uncertified and inexperienced teachers are hired to fill urban teacher vacancies, thus lacking effective skills needed to teach students representing diverse populations.

However, across the United States, efforts to combat the issues of poverty, teacher attrition, and the task of empowering students of color are in a continual process through changing programs and curriculum (Banks & Banks, 2001; Cummins, 1983; Delpit, 1988; Haberman, 1995; Kozol, 1990). Scholars agree that schools, teachers,

parents and the community must strive collaboratively to make a positive difference in urban students' success in today's society (Banks & Banks, 2001; Cummins, 1983; Delpit, 1988; Haberman, 1995; Kozol, 1994).

Being cognizant of their own cultural awareness and beliefs, teachers' can understand ways that their perceptions and actions have an effect on their students (Irvine & Armento, 2001). Although studies on the relationships regarding students of color and their academic achievement in relation to culturally responsive pedagogy have been preformed (Ladson-Billings, 1994), few studies on teachers' perceptions of cultural awareness and beliefs have been investigated. Therefore, it is crucial to examine elementary teachers' perceptions of cultural awareness and beliefs as measured by the Cultural Awareness and Beliefs Inventory. Furthermore, it is important to investigate if there is a statistically significant difference between Pre-K through second grade teachers who teach their students basic skills and utilize authentic assessments, whereas third through fourth grade teachers are held more accountable for the success or failure of their students on state mandated assessments.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this descriptive study (Gall, Gall and Borg, 2003) is to examine archival data collected from the administration of the Cultural Awareness and Belief Inventory (CABI) (Webb-Johnson & Carter, 2005). Specifically, the study examined whether differences existed between Pre-K through second grade urban teachers' perceptions and third and fourth grade urban teachers' perceptions of cultural awareness and beliefs as measured by the CABI in one urban district.

Significance of the Study

The significance of this descriptive study's results will expand the research and aid educators in making determinations to improve quality cultural awareness education for urban teachers through the examination of the Pre-K through fourth grade teacher's responses to the CABI. Venue for comparing these findings with their own beliefs and reflect on the implementation of culturally responsive classroom pedagogy within their classrooms (Watson, Charner-Laird, Kirkpatrick, Szczesiui & Gordon, 2006, p. 407).

Furthermore, during an age of accountability, high-stakes testing and growth in the number of students representing diverse populations in public schools, educators must refer to the research to determine the interaction between Pre-K through second grade teachers, who teach basic skills and utilize authentic assessments, and, third through fourth grade teachers, who are held more accountable for the success or failure of their students on state mandated assessments.

Research Question

What is the difference between Pre-K through second grade teachers' perceptions and third grade through fourth grade teachers' perceptions of cultural awareness and beliefs as measured by the Culturally Awareness and Beliefs Inventory in one urban district? Including the following eight factors:

- A. Teacher Beliefs
- B. School Climate
- C. Culturally Responsive Classroom Management
- D. Home and Community Support

- E. Cultural Awareness
- F. Curriculum and Instruction
- G. Cultural Sensitivity
- H. Teacher Efficacy

Definition of Terms

Assimilation – The process in which individuals or groups adopt the culture of another group, thereby losing some of the characteristics of their original identity and culture.

Cultural Awareness – The foundation of communication that involves the ability of standing back from ourselves and becoming aware of our cultural values, beliefs and perceptions (Quappe & Cantatore, 2005).

Cultural Awareness Beliefs Inventory (CABI) – An inventory measuring the perceptions and attitudes of urban teachers' beliefs based on the factors of: 1) teacher beliefs (TB), 2) School Climate (SC), 3) Culturally Responsive Classroom Management (CRCM), 4) Home and Community Support (HCS), 5) Cultural Awareness (CA), 6) Curriculum and Instruction (CI), 7) Cultural Sensitivity (CS), and 8) Teacher Efficacy (TE) (Webb-Johnson & Carter, 2005).

Cultural Knowledge – Refers to learned behaviors, beliefs and ways of relating to people their environment, values, belief systems and behaviors of the members of another ethnic group (Spradley, 1972).

Culturally Responsive Pedagogy – Used interchangeably with terms, such as “culturally responsibly,” “culturally appropriate,” “culturally congruent,” “culturally compatible,” “culturally relevant,” and “multicultural” (Irvine & Armento, 2001).

Culturally Responsive Classroom Management – Strategies described in culturally responsive pedagogy, which “provides all students with equitable opportunities for learning” and are infused within classroom management techniques (Weinstein, Tomlinson-Clarke, & Curran, 2004).

Cultural Sensitivity – “Attitudes, beliefs and behaviors towards students of other cultures” (Larke, 1990, p. 24); sharing our sensitivity and willingness to understand others (Wittmer, 1992).

Culture – Values, orientations, or worldviews that mediate the behaviors of a particular social group (Parsons, 2003).

Deficit Theory – Theory positing that some cultural groups are deficient in intelligence and/or achievement due to genetic inferiority, cultural deprivation, poverty or deprivation of mainstream cultural experiences (Bennett, 1970).

Home and Community Support – Value and support from parents, guardians, extended families and community to motivate, nurture and educating children to succeed in mainstream U.S. Society (Hildago, Sau-Fong Siu, & Epstein, 2004).

School Climate – “the set of internal characteristics that distinguish one school from another; and influence the behavior of each school’s members” (Hoy & Miskel, 2005, p. 5).

Teacher Beliefs – A teacher’s viewpoint or disposition toward a particular person or thing, which includes: affective or feelings toward a person or thing; cognitive or beliefs or knowledge about a person or thing; and behavioral or the predisposition to act toward a person or thing (Gall, Gall, and Borg, 2003).

Teacher Efficacy – Teacher beliefs about his or her own ability to produce a positive effect on the educational achievement of students (Bandura, 1997a).

Teachers' Perceptions – The understanding and awareness of a teacher's thoughts or beliefs as a result of culture, observations, experiences, discussions and /or reflections.

Assumptions

The following assumptions were made:

- 1) The archival data from the Cultural Awareness and Beliefs Inventory yielded honest and unbiased responses.
- 2) The archival data of responding urban elementary teachers is a large enough sample to desegregate the data.

Limitations of the Study

The following limitations were made:

- 1) The data results can be generalized to participants teaching in an urban school in southwestern United States.
- 2) The archival data was collected from one urban school in the southwestern United States.

Summary

Chapter I provided the background of this descriptive study by examining the challenges that urban school districts and teachers face. Cultural responsive pedagogy, socio-cultural theory and constructivist learning theory were used to guide the study. The purpose of this descriptive study is to examine archival data collected from the administration of the CABI and determine whether a difference exists between Pre-K

through second grade teachers' perceptions and third through fourth grade teachers' perceptions of each of the eight factors measured by the CABI. Furthermore, this study investigated whether differences existed between Pre-K through second grade teachers who focus on teaching basic skills and utilize authentic assessments, and third through fourth grade teachers, who are held more accountable for the success or failure of their students on state mandated tests. This chapter discussed the research question, definition of terms, assumptions and limitations of this descriptive study.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Gollnick and Chinn (1986) stated “educators today are faced with an overwhelming challenge to prepare students from diverse cultural backgrounds to live in a rapidly changing society and world” (p. 2). Further, anyone in today’s society, who educates or deals with children in any way, cannot ignore cultural diversity (Gollnick & Chinn, 1986). Teachers face students from culturally, linguistically, ethnically, economically diverse (CLEED) (P. Larke, personal communication, 2002) backgrounds daily (Banks, 1997). Delpit (1995) stated “children from middle-class communities are advantaged because they know what the codes/culture of power. Children from lower class communities or African American communities are disadvantaged because they lack this knowledge” (p.438). Delpit (1995) expressed “teachers should make the rules of ‘culture of power’ explicit and teach those to all students as a first step toward a more fair and education and society” (p. 438).

Ferguson (1998) responded that teachers recognized African American students were less engaged, difficult to teach and motivate to be academically successful. Irvine (1990) furthermore, “teachers form inaccurate impressions of student achievement especially with Black students” (p. 77). Furthermore, deficit thinking by educators can foster stereotypical and counterproductive ideas about culturally diverse students and lower their expectations (Ford, Grantham, & Harris, 1998).

Cooper (2003) emphasized the impact negative teacher bias plays on students and their academic success. In this study (Cooper, 2003), African American mothers

responded that negative teacher bias can affect students' self-esteem and academic success. These mothers deeply cared for their children and they shared with teachers that educational achievement was crucial for the success of their children in today's society. The mothers according to Cooper (2003) recognized the teacher as a powerful force who "can undermine their efforts to provide their children equal, educational opportunity and positive sense of racial identity" (p.102).

According to Haberman (1995) "for children and youth in poverty from diverse cultural backgrounds who attend urban schools, having effective teachers is a matter of life and death" (p. 1). Teachers need to recognize the kind of environment they will be entering into in an urban school setting and what their responsibilities entail, reported Haberman (1995). Haberman (1995) also stressed, a self-actualization process which brings teachers to a better understanding of themselves and their beliefs while being able to face the many challenges of becoming a truly 'urban teacher' (p. 91). Challenges include accountability systems existing within the urban schools they teach.

Elementary Accountability

Nationally, teachers play significant roles in teaching and designing instruction so that their students' test scores meet state standards. The NCLB Act of 2001 mandated states to establish standards so that grade level curriculum would be taught throughout the public schools (USDOE, 2009). High-stakes testing and accountability policies are expanding their reach in states and districts nationwide, stimulated in part by the 2001 passage of No Child Left Behind Act (Heilig & Darling-Hammond, 2008). High-stakes testing, or standardized state tests, are utilized to compare students' scores with the

required standards. Some states use these tests as a gatekeeper for specific grade levels to determine whether a student is promoted to the next grade or retained. High-stakes testing and accountability are the motivation for the national educational policy with its reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (2002) (McNeil, 2005). While districts, states and national agencies seem to be more focused on high-stakes assessments, educators see these assessments as less suitable measurements of student knowledge and skills. Further, these tests and the preparations are less valuable than the teacher's and students' time and effort (Hass, 1990; Stake, 1999).

According to Perreault (2000), high-stakes testing creates stress for teachers. Perreault's results concluded that pressure is being felt from the top down; thus administrators relate to teacher as saying, "if it ain't on the test, don't teach it" (Perreault, 2000, p. 707). However, teaching to the test may not be such a bad idea according to Rosenthal (2009). Some teachers teach test-taking skills and strategies, but that does not interfere with teaching the core curriculum. Additionally, focusing on the test brings attention to state standards, while providing guidance needed for students' success (Rosenthal, 2009). Furthermore, according to Bond, (2009) the importance of linking the curriculum, instruction, state standards and assessments makes more sense for student success in a more generalized format adhering to a larger domain, in lieu of drilling students on specific test items.

According to researchers, teachers worry whether or not their students are prepared for the tests both academically and emotionally (Jones, Jones, Hardin, Chapman, Yarbrough, & Davis, 1999). Furthermore, in schools labeled "probationary"

due to low performance scores, teachers were told they would be replaced unless the scores improved (Diamond & Spillane, 2004, p.1157). This tactic served as a way for administrators to compel teachers to change their practices (Diamond & Spillane, 2004).

According to Wright, Horn, and Sanders (1997), debates regarding teacher evaluation systems proposing the inclusion of student achievement data such as high-stakes testing, have been held. However, the findings of their study resulted in concluding “teachers do make a difference in student achievement”; further, “it cannot be assumed that higher-achieving students will make it on their own” (Wright, Horn, & Sanders, 1997, p. 66). Moreover, Wright, Horn, and Sanders (1997) found “differences in teacher effectiveness were found to be the dominant factors affecting student academic gains” (p.66).

Attending schools labeled as probationary can also influence the attitudes and beliefs of teachers. This label can have an effect on teacher’s motivation. “If school leaders work too hard to challenge teachers without some sense of emotional support, it is likely that it will be difficult [for teachers] to make changes in their practices” (Diamond & Spillane, 2004, p. 1158). Furthermore, effective teachers include those, who have developed strategies of culturally responsive pedagogy, while holding high, personal expectations for each child (Darling-Hammond, 2000).

Additionally, kindergarten exit requirements have lead to retention rates (Shepard & Smith, 1988; Walsh, 1989), thereby increasing concerns regarding formal instruction and appropriateness of standardized testing for young children (Elkind, 1994; Zigler, 1987). Sandal, McLean and Smith (2000) agreed high quality assessments for

young children was important, but should include the following characteristics: 1) conducted within a naturalistic environment; 2) used multiple methods; 3) made connections between the intent of the assessment and the way it was used; and 4) families participate in the process. These authentic assessments (Bagnato, 2007) utilized for evaluating younger elementary students included a systematic documentation through caregivers monitoring and observing the natural behaviors of young children overtime in their daily life. Authentic assessments can include portfolios, which note student growth and learning basic concepts or check lists which are used to monitor the mastery of specific skills or standards (Bagnato, 2007) or whether re-teaching is needed. Pre-K through second grade teachers utilizes authentic assessments in evaluating basic skill knowledge of their students in lieu of standardized tests. This type of assessment is used because standardized assessments may yield less accurate information of young children (Bell & Barnett, 1999; Costello & Zarowin, 2002; Neisworth & Bagnato, 2004). Furthermore, many believe standardized test are inappropriate for young children since they fail to adequately involve families in the assessment process (Myers & McBride, 1996; Bell & Barnett, 1999; McLean, Wolery & Bailey, 2004).

However, with accountability at the forefront of educational reform, and with increased diversity in the classrooms, more research in teacher beliefs' is needed to further educate teachers in culturally responsive pedagogy and multicultural education, which will assist all students in being academically successful (Alidou, Larke & Carter, 2002; Bernard, 1999; Cochran-Smith, 1995; Gay, 1994; Heilig & Darling-Hammond,

2008; Irvine & Armento, 2001; Larke, 1990; Milner, 2002; Richards, Brown & Forde, 2004; Watson, Charner-Laird, Kirkpatrick, Szczesiui & Gordon, 2006).

Effective Cultural Pedagogy

Pang (1998) emphasized the importance of preparing teachers for culturally diverse classrooms as one of the most rewarding accomplishments in education. Pang's believes in helping teachers create a classroom that is effective for all children. Nieto (2000) encouraged educators to get involved with their students and "become students of their students, embrace what their students bring to the classroom, and be respectful of where they are coming from" (p. 10). Nieto promoted change in the thinking of educators to challenge "to conquer the fear of change and imagine how we might create exciting possibilities for all students in all schools" (2000, p. 69). Nieto (2000) stated in an interview "Multicultural education is not a compensatory program or a patronizing approach to help inner city kids. It is about helping all kids become better learners and better prepared to live in the 21st century" (p. 10). In addition, Cohen (1986) believes that in exposing students to other cultures help them learn about other people's lives, lifestyles and values. Therefore, negative, stereotypic thinking is altered through cultural awareness; thereby reducing intolerance and increasing cooperation (Cohen, 1986).

Boykin, Tyler, Watkins-Lewis and Kizzie (2006) examined whether culture mediated teachers' reported classroom behaviors. The study included 81 teachers from two public schools located in a low-income community in the northeastern region of the United States. The instrument, Cultural Classroom Practice Questionnaire (CCPQ), assessed teachers' reported use of culturally based classroom activities. This study was

designed to investigate the role of culture of low-income African American children school experiences (Boykin, Tyler, Watkins-Lewis & Kizzie, 2006). The results reported that African American teachers had a significantly higher use of classroom practices that demonstrated individualism and competition, rather than communalism or vigor (Boykin, Tyler, Watkins-Lewis & Kizzie, 2006). These results indicated that teachers exposed their students to classroom activities and behaviors that reinforce mainstream cultural values (Boykin, Tyler, Watkins-Lewis & Kizzie, 2006). In addition, African American teachers reported higher occurrences of competitive classroom behaviors than those of European American teachers (Boykin, Tyler, Watkins-Lewis & Kizzie, 2006). This finding appeared to explain the need and importance that African American teachers feel in teaching their students to achieve within the mainstream culture (Boykin, Tyler, Watkins-Lewis & Kizzie, 2006, p. 170-171).

Irvine (1992) examined learning styles to emphasize the cultural context of teaching students of color. Differences between mainstream and diverse students' approach to learning were determined to be a major contributor to school failure of students of color (Irvine, 1992). Additionally, Irvine and Armento (2001) emphasized that teachers overlook students' culture, which explained the failures of diverse students.

According to Haberman (1995), students should "experience the joys of learning" (p. 30). To accomplish this, teachers must guide students to be involved in planning and selecting activities in which ownership in the learning process is developed (p. 33). Haberman further emphasized that teachers are encouraged to "engage in gentle teaching aimed at making learning intrinsic and students accountable" (1995, p. 91).

Marzano (2003) stressed that individual teachers decisions make more of an impact on students than decisions made by the school itself. According to Marzano (2003), effective teachers have mastered instructional strategies, classroom management and classroom curriculum design. Good and Brophy, (2000) believed that the mastered qualities instruction, classroom management, disciplinary interactions and student socialization were components of an effective teacher. Cotton (1995) reported that characteristics of an effective teacher include planning, setting goals, organizing and managing a classroom, instructing, interacting with students, being equitable and assessing students (p. 76).

Haberman (1991) stated, “few urban schools serving as models of student learning have teachers, who maintain control by establishing trust and involving their students in meaningful activities, rather than by imposing some neat system of classroom discipline” (p. 310). Haberman stressed that “good teaching” behaviors transcend to children of poverty learning in an urban setting. Haberman (1991) listed the following twelve examples of “good teaching” occurring, when students are:

1. Involved with issues they regard as vital concerns,
2. Involved with explanation of human differences,
3. Being helped to see major concepts, big ideas and general principles and are not merely engaged in the pursuit of isolated facts,
4. Involved in planning what they will be doing,
5. Involved with applying ideas such as fairness, equity, or justice to their world,

6. Actively involved,
7. Directly involved in real-life experience,
8. Involved in heterogeneous groups,
9. Asked to think about an idea in a way that questions common sense or a widely accepted assumption, relates new ideas to ones learned previously, or that applies an idea to the problems of living,
10. Involved in redoing, polishing, or perfecting their work,
11. Involved with the technology of information access, and
12. Involved in reflecting on their own lives and how they have come to believe and feel as they do (p. 311-313).

According to Haberman (1991), all of the aforementioned attributes combine to exemplify a “good teacher” (p. 313). This process, “drawing out”, instead of “stuffing in”, encourages urban schools to employ teachers possessing these attributes to teach in a culturally, linguistically, ethnically, economically, diverse (CLEED) (Larke, personal communication, September, 2002) setting. Mentoring these teachers are more experienced “star teachers”, who also exhibit these characteristics (Haberman, 1991, p. 313). Through the skills of “‘star teachers’, teachers new to the profession will also be supported, while they develop into ‘star teachers’” (Haberman, 1991, p. 313).

Barry and Lechner (1995) examined the attitudes and awareness of multicultural teaching and learning of 73 preservice teachers. Using a 43-statement questionnaire about teaching culturally diverse students in their classrooms, the results concluded that most of the 73 preservice students were “aware of the diversity of student population in

the United States and were interested in gaining additional knowledge and training” (Barry & Lechner, 1995, p.153). Preservice teachers strongly agreed that students should be exposed to a variety of cultures different than their own (Barry & Lechner, 1995, p. 156). Moreover, these teachers realized that in our diverse society, to be an effective teacher, additional courses in multicultural education and experiences were required (Barry & Lechner, 1995). Barry and Lechner (1995) and Larke (1990) recommended a long-term comprehensive approach to educate future teachers in multicultural education.

Henry’s (1995) dissertation incorporated a Cultural Diversity Awareness Inventory (CDAI). The CDAI was “a self-administered questionnaire designed to measure an individual’s attitudes, beliefs and behavior toward children of culturally diverse backgrounds” (Larke, 1990, p. 24). The inventory was given to 506 teachers in Texas and Virginia. The questionnaire was composed of 28 opinion questions using a 5-point Likert Scale. The results of the study concluded that the content validity was acceptable for 19 of the 28 inventory statements and had an alpha coefficient of 0.90. After a few revisions, the CDAI was ready for general distribution (Henry, 1995). According to Henry, “multicultural materials are essential for implementing a multicultural curriculum. However, they are ineffective when used by a teacher, who lacks the knowledge of multicultural education” (1995, p. 51).

Larke (1990) examined preservice teachers by assessing their sensitivity to diversity through the administration of the Cultural Diversity Awareness Inventory (CDAI). The 51 female elementary pre-service teachers had completed three years of undergraduate coursework and one multicultural education course prior to the

administration of the CDAI. Of the 51 students, 46 were European American and 5 were Hispanic American and represented middle to upper socioeconomic status. The results of Larke's (1990) study indicated that preservice teachers realized that the students they will teach would represent diverse cultural backgrounds different from themselves. Only one-fifth of the preservice teachers acknowledged a preference to work with students from a different culture than their own (Larke, 1990).

The preservice teachers surveyed acknowledged welcoming parental participation. However, they professed that they felt the parents knew very little about educating their own children (Larke, 1990). The preservice teachers conceded that they were "uncomfortable with personal contact with parents of culturally diverse students" (Larke, 1990, p. 29). Further in this study, "when asked about their preference for working with diverse students, high levels of discomfort appeared" (Larke, 1990, p. 29). According to Larke (1990), one multicultural course is inadequate to change the attitudes and behaviors of preservice teachers to value, recognize and respect diversity of students facing them in future classrooms. Results from Larke's (1990) study indicated the necessity for teacher educators' to recognize these issues and provide additional opportunities for preservice teachers to interact with students representing diverse backgrounds.

According to Cooper (2003) teacher bias can have a negative impact on students and their success. Cooper's (2003) qualitative research study discussed African American mothers' standpoint from the value of education, teacher commitment, ethic of care and their own personal backgrounds. The main implications noted "teacher

education programs should integrate activities and courses that promote teachers becoming more culturally sensitive and self-aware” (Cooper, 2003, p. 114). Furthermore, these parents advocated the school district assign accomplished teachers and school administrators to schools in need.

Cultural Awareness and Beliefs Inventory

Roberts-Walter (2007) examined the Cultural Awareness and Beliefs Inventory (CABI) in determining the validity and reliability of the instrument. The CABI was administered to 3,733 Pre-K through grade 12 urban public school teachers during the fall semester of 2005, prior to an in-service. According to Roberts-Walter (2007) study 1,873 teachers completed and returned the 46-item Likert scale inventory. The respondents answered the survey questions on a scantron form. The questions covered a total of 12 factors. Roberts-Walter (2007) established the content validity of eight of the factors inventory. Roberts-Walter (2007) concluded the CABI was a reliable instrument with a Cronbach’s alpha coefficient established at .83 for the 36-item scale.

Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework (Figure 2.1) of this descriptive study illustrated the elementary teacher’s perceptions as represented by a yellow star. This symbol represents the characteristics of Haberman’s Star Teachers, who possess experiences and beliefs, which assist them in educating students. However, teachers’ perceptions of Teachers’ Beliefs, School Climate, Culturally Responsive Classroom Management, Home and Community Support, Cultural Awareness, Curriculum and Instruction, Cultural Sensitivity, and Teacher Efficacy as measured by the CABI can be varied. The arrows

eradiate to and from the star; thereby illustrating the belief that through teachers' experiences, thoughts, cultural awareness, ideas and perceptions of the aforementioned eight factors can change.



FIGURE 2.1 Conceptual Framework

Roberts-Walter (2007) examined the validity and reliability of the Culturally Awareness and Beliefs Inventory (CABI) administered in an urban district. The instrument measured eight factors, which included Teachers' Belief, School Climate, Culturally Responsive Classroom Management, Home and Community Support, Cultural Awareness, Curriculum and Instruction, Cultural Sensitivity, and Teacher Efficacy (Roberts-Walter, 2007). The CABI was found to be a valid and reliable instrument in measuring teachers' perceptions regarding their cultural awareness and beliefs (Roberts-Walter, 2007). The following paragraphs will discuss studies of the eight factors found on the Conceptual Framework (Figure 2.1).

Teachers' Beliefs

Horowitz (1994) stated that teachers' belief system is a snap shot of behaviors providing teachers a better understanding of their role as a teacher. Song (2006) indicated, "few would argue that teaching is based on both explicit and implicit personal values and beliefs" (p. 482). Bennett (1993) encourages teachers to recognize and understand their own worldviews, because only then will they be capable in comprehending and appreciating the worldviews of their students.

Teachers' beliefs and attitudes are linked closely to their classroom behavior and practices according to Rimm-Kaufman and Sawyer (2004). Furthermore, Richardson (1996) stated that, "attitudes and beliefs are a subset group of constructs that name, define, and describe the structure and content of mental states that are thought to drive a person's actions" (p. 102). Teachers are constantly making decisions in their classrooms

and these decisions come from their beliefs, attitudes; thus providing a framework for their decisions (Calderhead, 1996; Nespor, 1987; Richardson, 1994).

Rimm-Kaufman and Sawyer (2004) examined teachers' beliefs, attitudes, and teaching priorities. A questionnaire and Q-sort was collected from 69 K through third grade teachers teaching at six schools. During the first year that the Responsive Classroom Training was implemented, teachers showed the more they used responsive classroom techniques, the greater self-efficacy beliefs they exhibited. Furthermore, these teachers were more likely to report positive attitudes towards teaching and learning. Teachers found discipline was not an issue since students were actively engaged in classroom learning (Rimm-Kaufman & Sawyer, 2004).

Haberman (2002) stressed that a teacher, who understands diverse children living in poverty, those representing ethnic backgrounds and speaking languages other than English, would be able to make a difference in teaching urban students. Cummins (1994) stated "educators, who see their role as adding a second language and cultural affiliation to their students' repertoire, are likely to empower students more than those who see their role as replacing or subtracting students' primary language and culture" (p. 334).

Confusing teacher beliefs, regarding the roles of school, home culture, and relationships between teachers and students, compromises the success of students of color (Grant & Sleeter, 1986; Spindler, 1994; Wolcott, 1997). Romanowski (1997) concluded that a teachers' belief system guides them in decision-making regarding curriculum and instruction through organizing a framework, establishing patterns of meaning, informing evaluations, and determining views of right or wrong.

Middleton's (2002) study examined teacher beliefs about diversity and commitment to multicultural teaching practices using the Beliefs about Diversity Scale (BADs) (Pohan & Aguilar, 1995). Preservice teachers were given the Beliefs about Diversity Scale before diversity training and after the diversity training. Although the findings mainly offered guidelines for designing and presenting multicultural curriculum so as to prepare preservice teachers to work in a diverse student classroom; it also denoted a significant difference was indicated in the pretest and posttest, however changes were "not always toward increased diversity beliefs and commitment" (Middleton, 2002, p. 358).

Kyles and Olafson (2008) examined a field base teacher program which investigated teachers' beliefs regarding diversity through reflective writing and a variety of survey measurements. In the fall of 2003, fourteen pre-service teachers participated in a pre and post measures. The measures included: the Hope Scale, the Motivation for Teaching Scale, and the Teacher Efficacy Scale, furthermore at the end of the semester participants took the Personal and Professional Beliefs about Diversity Scales. These teachers also participated in reflective letters throughout the semester. Teachers who had no previous classes in multicultural education or diversity training indicated greater disconnect to pluralism and multicultural integration in the classroom. Whereas, those who had previous experiences and training suggested "stronger relationship among diverse life experiences, multiculturalism, positive beliefs about teaching diverse learners and pluralism integration in the classrooms" (Kyles & Olafson, p. 511).

Pajaras (1992) acknowledged the difficulty in studying teachers' beliefs due to "definitional problems, poor conceptualizations, and differing understandings of beliefs and belief structures" (p. 307). In a study, Pajaras (1992) examined several researchers' meanings of beliefs and ways they differed. The results concluded that the study of teachers' beliefs is critical; thus providing a focus of educational inquiry for teacher professional development.

Kane, Sandretto and Heath (2002) examined previously conducted studies of teachers' beliefs and practices. Although this study focused university professors, the findings were relevant to all levels of education. Kane, Sandretto and Heath (2002) concluded that the relationship between teacher and the students is important to the students' success. Also Pajaras (1992) noted "few would argue [against the assumption] that the beliefs teachers hold, influence their perceptions and judgments, which, in turn, affect their behaviors in classrooms" (p. 307). Thus, according to the researchers, future study is required to link teachers' beliefs with teachers' practices so that educators can better understand ways to teach and so that novice teachers may benefit (Kane, Sandretto & Heath, 2002).

Tiezzi and Cross (1997) examined 48 prospective urban teachers' ideas and beliefs about teaching in an urban school. This qualitative study examined reflective journals, writings, in-class observations, personal history essays, and a final survey (Tiezzi & Cross, 1997). The resulting data included the following concerns: "I will be teaching my beliefs and attitudes to them, what if I am a racist?" "I feel sorry for these kids," "they're so cute and are so poor that I want to help them all," "I do not believe I

can teach these students,” “Inner-city students cannot learn and were unmotivated to learn” (Tiezzi & Cross, 1997, p. 116-117). After working with urban children through a field experience program, some of the teachers’ beliefs appeared to change. Their comments included: “I know I can face the problems of urban poor children,” “I must be sensitive to their needs and willing to find a solution,” “I realize the difficulty of working in a diverse student population and I have learned a lot in this experience about different cultures and backgrounds,” “I think one would have to be young and idealistic to continue working in this situation for any length of time before burnout occurs,” “I never realized the severity of the problems these children face every day” (Tiezzi & Cross, 1997, p. 116-117).

Tiezzi and Cross (1997) reported that many of the teachers involved in this study experienced frustration and uncertainty of their chosen profession. “The dilemma is not that the prospective teachers have beliefs; the dilemma arises in how to respond in educative ways to naïve, misinformed, and, at times, prejudiced and racist beliefs [of prospective teachers]” (Tiezzi & Cross, 1997, p. 122). Tiezzi and Cross (1997) noted that the explicit mission of their teacher education program was to prepare urban teachers, even though they knew that some would never teach in an urban district (Tiezzi & Cross, 1997). This research provided information for universities to use to develop more competent urban teachers through a teacher/urban school-based program (Tiezzi & Cross, 1997).

Parajes, (1992), acknowledged “little will have been accomplished if research into educational beliefs fails to provide insight into the relationship between beliefs, on

the one hand, and teacher practices, teacher knowledge, and student outcomes on the other” (p. 327). Further, Parajes (1992) suggested the investigation of connections between research-based teaching practices utilized by effective teachers and then implement those in teacher preparation courses.

School Climate

Positive school climate generates positive educational and psychological outcomes for students and teachers; whereas, a negative school climate impedes learning and development (Freiberg, 1998; Johnson & Johnson, 1993, 1997; Kuperminc et al., 1997; Kuperminc, Leadbeater & Blatt, 2001; Manning & Saddlemire, 1996). Gollnick and Chinn emphasized (1986), “A positive teacher attitude and strong belief system can influence class climate” (p. 273). According to Manning and Saddlemire (1996), positive school climate embraces “trust, respect, mutual obligation and concern for other’s welfare. Furthermore, these aspects have effects on educators’ and learners’ interpersonal relationships, learners’ academic achievement and overall school progress” (Manning & Saddlemire, 1996, p. 41). MacNeil and Maclin (2005) suggested that school climate provides the belief that all students are capable of learning, the environment is safe and the curriculum is intellectually challenging.

Student empowerment begins with positive school experiences, which develop attitudes, confidence, motivation to learn and academic success (Cummins, 1994; Tikunoff, 1983). Students, who fail to become empowered or who are ‘disabled’ by their school experiences, have difficulties in developing cognitive, academic and social/emotional foundations (Cummins, 1994, p. 331).

Freiberg (1998) stated, “school climate can be a positive influence on the health of the learning environment or a significant barrier to learning” (p. 22). Additionally, Kuperminc, Leadbeater and Blatt (1997) reported that students having fewer behavior problems and less emotional problems were linked to a positive school climate. Freiberg (1998) further stated, that “the interaction of various school and classroom climate factors can create a fabric of support that enables all members of the school community to teach and learn at optimum levels” (p. 22). Further, Taylor and Tashakkori (1995) and Freiberg (1998) reported that job satisfaction of the teachers and administrators was affected by a positive school climate.

Brown and Medway (2007) conducted a case study in South Carolina. The study examined elementary school climate and teacher beliefs in an “effective school” serving African American students (p. 529). Of the 600 Pre-kindergarten through fifth grade students, 74 percent of the student population consisted of African American, while 25 percent were European American, and 1 percent represented Hispanic Americans (Brown & Medway, 2007). Further, a majority of the students were representative of low socioeconomic status. Thirteen third through fifth grade teachers participated in this study by completing the Organizational Health Inventory (OHI) to assess the teachers’ perceptions of School Climate. Additionally, they completed the Primary Teacher Questionnaire (Brown & Medway, 2007). Further, qualitative questions were used to interview the teachers and classroom instruction was videotaped.

The results of this study suggested that teachers can assist students in becoming successful by creating mutually supportive educational environments, utilizing flexible

instructional approaches through peer support, encouraging parental and family involvement, and promoting professional development to prepare teachers to instruct students representing diverse populations (Brown & Medway, 2007).

Culturally Responsive Classroom Management

Culturally responsive classrooms, according to Montgomery (2001), emphasized addressing students' learning styles when teaching. Moreover, consideration should be given of incorporating students' cultures and ways classroom management routines affect each student. Haberman (1991) stated "few urban schools that serve as models of student learning have teachers, who maintain control by establishing trust and involving their students in meaningful activities, rather than by imposing some neat system of classroom discipline" (p. 310).

Turner's study (2005) posited that through teachers being more culturally aware, then they would be more open to include cultural mores and infuse them within culturally responsive classroom management. Through the student's reflection of his or her behaviors, teachers could guide student to find solutions to behavioral issues (Turner, 2005).

Cummins (1986) emphasized that "widespread school failure does not occur in minority groups that are positively oriented toward both their own and the dominant culture, that do not perceive themselves as inferior to the dominant group, and that are not alienated from their own failures" (p. 331). Students, empowered through their school experiences, evolve with confidence and have a desire to be successful academically. However, students, disabled through their school experiences, fail to

develop cognitive/academic or social/emotional foundations (Cummins, 1986). Through implementation of culturally responsive classroom management, teachers can plan and implement successful school experiences integrating cultural mores (Cummins, 1986). Additionally, Nieto (2000) encouraged teachers to become involved with their students and “become students of their students, embrace what their students bring to the classroom, and be respectful of where they are coming from” (p. 10) such as, their cultures, communities and homes.

Home and Community Support

Providing interaction between school and the community, as an integrated part of the school culture, empowers the community and the school (Cummins, 1994).

Furthermore, “involving minority parents as partners in their children’s education encourages parents to develop a sense of efficacy that communicates to the children with positive academic consequences” (Cummins, 1994, p. 334). Epstein & Salinas (2004) embraced a school learning community program that fostered learning through partnerships with the school, family and community. According to researchers, these partnerships improved schools, supported families, and rejuvenated community support; thereby increasing student achievement and success (Epstein, 2001; Henderson & Mapp, 2002; Sheldon, 2003).

Banks (1993) reinforced building school-family partnerships. He posited that increasing student knowledge of other cultures, making students aware of other students’ home life, which includes families and lifestyles. In this, prejudice would be reduced in the school and home environments (Banks, 1993) When students can relate to each other

and see their commonalities, trust is built (Banks, 1993). Seaman (1992) stated “the emphasis is upon the family with parents and children learning together in hopes that both will realize the value of education, not only in their individual lives, but also in the family as a collective unit” (p. 72).

Schwartz (1999) stressed that through developing parental literacy skills, children’s learning at home was promoted. As a result, greater gains in student achievement were attained (Schwartz, 1999). Schwartz (1999) also encouraged developing parents’ skills; thereby enabling them to become successful and fulfilled. Promoting their children’s learning at home helped emphasize to their children the importance of achievement at school (p. 3). Since research has reported that parent involvement has a positive effect on a child’s academic achievement, the NCLB Act of 2001 has supported this component of Home and Community Support (Comer, 1988; Marjoribanks, 1979).

Love and Kruger (2005) designed a study measuring teachers’ culturally relevant beliefs and student achievement of African American students. This study indicated the importance of communal learning environments, success of all students, teaching as giving back the community, and the significance of students’ ethnicity (Love & Kruger, 2005). Previous research has reported low academic performance of urban students and disparity in teacher quality as compared to non-urban schools (Ladson-Billings, 1995; Lankford et al., 2002; Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education, 2001; Williams, 1996).

Noddings (1984) hypothesized the importance of nurturing students' individual interests and needs, while modeling an "ethic of care" for self, for family, the community and entire ecosystem through the Care Theory (p. 21). To make a positive difference in the survival of urban students in current society, scholars agree that urban schools, teachers, parents and communities must collaborate to make the effort to accomplish this task (Banks & Banks, 2001; Cummins, 1983; Delpit, 1988; Haberman, 1995; Kozol, 1990). Cummins (1994) acknowledged that students, who are empowered by school experiences, develop confidence and ability to succeed academically. Furthermore, according to Cummins (1994) when educators invite minority parents as partners in their children's education, parents develop a sense of efficacy that communicates itself to children with positive academic consequences. Conversely, those whom are not empowered, are "disabled" by their school experiences (Cummins, 1994, p. 331-332).

Cultural Awareness

Today educators are charged with preparing students representing diverse cultural backgrounds to succeed in a rapidly changing society and world (Gollnick & Chinn, 1986). Furthermore, Gollnick and Chinn (1986) profess that those, who educate or deal with children in any way, cannot ignore students' cultural diversity if they expect students to be successful. Moreover, "culture provides the blueprint that determines the way an individual thinks, feels, and behaves in society" (Gollnick & Chinn, 1986, p. 5). Through sharing their beliefs and values, students and teachers find commonalities with one another, learn to respect diversity, and become more culturally aware of themselves

and others. Then the learning environment can promote greater success for all students (Gollnick & Chinn, 1986).

Quappe and Cantatore (2005) defined cultural awareness as “the foundation of communication and it involves the ability of standing back from ourselves and becoming aware of our cultural values, beliefs, and perceptions” (p. 1). Quappe and Cantatore (2005) believe it is important to ask ourselves “Why do we do the things in that way? How do we see the world? Why do we react in a particular way?” (p. 1). Furthermore, they reported that our experiences, values and cultural background guide us to see and do things in a certain way (Quappe & Cantatore, 2005). To become culturally aware, one must realize: “We are not all the same that similarities and differences are both important. There are multiple ways to reach the same goal and to live life. The best way depends on the cultural congruency. Each situation is different and may require a different solution” (Quappe & Cantatore, 2005, p. 2).

Kambutu and Nganga (2008) conducted a narrative qualitative inquiry of twelve pre-service and in-service educators immersed within a foreign culture for 3 weeks over several summers. These rural American educators traveled to Kenya and were given pre- and post surveys (Kambutu & Nganga, 2008). The results of the pre-surveys reported that the educators conveyed a lack of cultural awareness (Kambutu & Nganga, 2008). However, the post-survey results reported a broader awareness, as well as a greater understanding and appreciation for the host cultures (Kambutu & Nganga, 2008). Final analysis determined that “when people are immersed [in a culture], they experience

cultural dissonance, which becomes an essential step in the process of building cultural awareness” (Kambutu & Nganga, 2008, p. 949).

Seidl and Friend (2002) reported that cohorts of 30 graduate students enrolled in Ohio State University and Mt. Olivet Baptist Community took part in a three-year study. Participants of this graduate program, Literacy Education and Diverse Settings (LEADS), were primarily European Americans having little prior experience working with diverse socioeconomic and cultural communities (Seidl & Friend, 2002). The LEADS program goal assisted each prospective teacher “toward a mature anti-racist identity so that future efforts of interacting with children were situated with a more sophisticated understanding of racism and inequity” (Seidl and Friend, 2002, p. 423). The study found that some participants developed caring relationships with adults of the community as well as being allies in anti-racist efforts. Others acknowledged that they were privileged, but did not realize any responsibility for others’ inequalities (Seidl & Friend, 2002). Developing personal connections between Mt. Olivet teachers, students and staff appeared to be a positive cross-cultural experience (Seidl & Friend, 2002).

Curriculum and Instruction

Grant (1994) emphasized students need to “argue for a curriculum that pays more attention to their needs, interests, goals and ambitions” (p. 323). Further, Grant stressed the importance of being academically challenged to think, rather than to regurgitate information. Although basic facts need to be mastered by all students, educators, parents and children of color have called for a more rigorous curriculum (Grant, 1994).

Banks (2001) stated that, “educational equity and excellence for all children in the United States are unattainable without the incorporation of cultural pluralism in all aspects of the educational process” (p. 41). Further, Banks (2001) acknowledged, “curriculum design is the means and power through which multicultural education can break through the core of educational enterprise.” Moreover, “educators are responsible for knowing their students and cultural backgrounds so that teachers can help them reach their full potential” (p. 41).

Multicultural education provides teachers an educational strategy in which the student’s cultural background is viewed as positive and essential in developing classroom instruction in an advantageous school environment (Gay, 2000). Learning about the student is invaluable when designing the curriculum and developing lessons for students (Gay, 2000). Further, Gay (2000) emphasized that the connection between students’ lives, experiences outside of school, and curriculum content being interlocked and empowering ethnically diverse students in achieving academic success (p. 111).

Dunn (1997) examined studies that focused on utilizing the students’ learning styles to understanding the concepts being taught. Providing students the opportunity to choose whether they wanted to work alone, in a group, or with their teacher is the key to achievement (Dunn, 1997). The study concluded that when working with underachievers, special education and students representing diverse populations, learning styles must be considered (Dunn, 1997).

Taylor (1983) acknowledged that teaching multicultural “literature can recreate the life experiences of people from different cultural and ethnic groups” (p. 18).

Interacting with multicultural literature provided students enhanced acceptance and understanding of their own and other group's culture; thus, developing cultural sensitivity (Taylor, 1983).

Cultural Sensitivity

According to the National Maternal and Child Health Care Center on Cultural Competency (1997), cultural sensitivity is defined as being aware that cultural differences as well as similarities exist. Further, cultural differences need not be assigned values, such as: better or worse, right or wrong. Stafford, Bowman, Ewing, Hanna, Lopez-DeFede (1997) reported that these similarities and differences have an effect on values, learning, and behavior. Wittmer (1992) emphasized that sharing our sensitivity and willingness to understand others is a major key to effective communication with cultures different from our own. A culturally sensitive teacher is aware of and addresses the auditory cues which signal the student's readiness to participate in second language learning (Ford, 1979; Jensen, 1972; Longstreet, 1978; Spindler & Spindler, 1994b).

Belli (1999) examined novice and experienced teachers' cultural sensitivity when teaching students whose language was different than their own. "An interest in confirming or rejecting the premise that novice teachers of English for Students of Other Language (ESOL) were "more savvy" and more culturally sensitive than previous groups of teachers prompted the novice-experienced dichotomy of teachers' experiences in this study (p.82). However, Belli (1999) found no significant difference in the Teacher Sensitivity Inventory (TSI) levels of novices vs. veteran teachers.

The research question of a case study focused on whether the use of cultural sensitivity could be used on teacher evaluations (Krasnick, 1991). The study reported that an instructor was sent to a Pacific Island by a U. S. university (Krasnick, 1991). The participants in the introductory content course were public school teachers. All, but one, were English as a Second Language (ESL) speakers (Krasnick, 1991). The instructor spent a majority of the class time summarizing the textbook. This was done since the participants appeared to have difficulty with the written English language. At the end of the course, the test given was not from the summaries, but was written by the instructor's colleague (Krasnick, 1991). Further, the test's content was different from the material taught during class lectures (Krasnick, 1991). Due to this transgression, the students' cited the results were a direct result of the instructor lacking "cultural sensitivity" (Krasnick, 1991, p. 196). Krasnick (1991) reported that the use of cultural sensitivity in teacher evaluations was inappropriate. However, Krasnick (1991) concluded that cultural sensitivity deserves further investigation.

Powell (1996) explored intuitive strategies of four teachers working in culturally diverse learning environments in different regions of the United States. Intuitive strategies included teachers who demonstrated:

1. Knowledge of ways to utilize the cultural backgrounds of students,
2. Motivates students from all cultural groups,
3. Uses culturally relevant instructional activities,
4. Creates a culturally relevant classroom curriculum,

5. Uses instructional strategies that engage all students in meaningful learning (Powell, 1996, p. 49-50).

These four teachers were acknowledged as being successful by their school, administrators, and instructional specialist as meeting the needs of their diverse students. The relationship between each teacher's autobiography and culturally sensitive instruction were investigated. Within the data, three major themes emerged. These themes included reshaping traditional school curriculum, rethinking the role of the teacher, and acquiring and using cultural sensitivity (Powell, 1996). Powell's (1996) findings suggested that the teachers' intuitive strategies assisted students representing diverse populations to be successful academically and personally. Powell (1996) reported that the "teachers made the students' cultural backgrounds a very real part of the school environment" (p. 59) through the utilization of culturally relevant teaching strategies within their instruction. These four teachers were culturally sensitive to their students needs although they had not received any formal multicultural training or teacher preparation courses in culturally relevant teaching (Powell, 1996).

Willard-Hold (2005) conducted a qualitative study investigating elementary preservice teachers' perceptions of international teaching. A total of 22 preservice teachers traveled to Mexico to teach in a bilingual school, while also touring cultural and historical sites. The teachers completed a ten-item open response questionnaire before leaving on their trip. At the completion of their experience, they were asked to amend their responses if necessary (Willard-Hold, 2005).

As a result of their experiences, preservice teachers reported benefits from the trip such as relating the feelings of being a member of a minority group (Willard-Hold, 2005). Further, they reported that they were more patient, empathetic and would seek to reach all students academically; thereby becoming more culturally sensitive (Willard-Hold, 2005). Willard-Holt (2005) concluded, “as a result, these teachers may be less prone to prejudge students based on cultural backgrounds, linguistic differences, or even learning disabilities” (p. 515) consequently gaining knowledge in cultural sensitivity. Through this international experience, preservice teachers can draw upon that knowledge when working with students in their classrooms (Willard-Hold, 2005).

Pence and Macgillivray (2008) also conducted an international study of 15 European American preservice teachers’ experiences before and after a four-week student teaching practicum in Rome, Italy. The results of the study appeared to indicate that preservice teachers’ perceptions had undergone a major change based on their perceptions prior to the experience. The preservice teachers worked with experienced teachers and students of a private international primary through secondary (K-12) school. Before leaving for the practicum, preservice teachers were able to gather information from a group of teachers, who had had a similar experience the previous year (Pence & Macgillivray, 2008). Their preconceived ideas included thinking that the Catholic school would be structured, students would wear uniforms, and nuns would act as teachers. Further, the preservice teachers felt that the students would be arrogant based on them representing wealthy families (Pence & Macgillivray, 2008).

All participating teachers were required to journal their experiences and note whether their preconceived ideas had changed. The practicum group met to discuss their journals with one another, while receiving feedback and ideas from other practicum students and their instructor (Pence & Macgillivray, 2008). Other topics, such as “student behavior, curriculum and perceived lack of parental support and involvement,” (Pence & Macgillivray, 2008, p. 24) were discussed within their reflections. Using those criteria, the participants also compared U. S. schools to those in Rome (p. 24). They also discussed the “culture and the socioeconomic class distinctions as having a great significance of how we judge others” (Pence & Macgillivray, 2008, p. 24).

According to the data analysis, the results collected at the end of the practicum indicated that preservice teachers positively benefited from this experience. Journal entries revealed that the preservice teachers had “both professional and personal changes, which included increased confidence, a better appreciation and respect for differences of others and other cultures” (Pence & Macgillivray, 2008, p. 23). The findings further concluded that additional research was needed on methods teachers used to internalize cultural sensitivity and to provide preservice teachers with authentic experiences involving diverse students (Pence & Macgillivray, 2008).

Cooper’s (2003) study discussed African American mothers’ beliefs regarding the impact teacher bias can have on their children. The data indicated the mother respondents cared deeply for their children’s education and they felt that it was vital to their child’s success. They advocated for teacher programs to provide integrated activities and courses, which encourage teachers to become more culturally sensitive and

self-aware. These mothers also stated “policymakers, teacher educators, and teachers become complicit in reproducing inequality if they fail to demonstrate the courage needed to implement innovative and meaningful reforms” (Cooper, 2003, p. 114). Urban schools can benefit from districts utilizing their most skillful teachers and administrators into the schools, which need them the most to mentor others according to these African American mothers, whose students attend an urban public school system.

Teacher Efficacy

The Federal Programs Supporting Educational Change defined teacher efficacy as “the extent to which the teacher believes he or she has the capacity to affect student performance” (Bergman, McLaughlin, Bass, Pauly & Zellman, 1997, p. 137). Bandura (1986) perceived self-efficacy as “the belief in ones’ capacity to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments” (p. 3). Through Bandura’s (1986) Theory, teaching efficacy was conceived as the control of their actions lay within themselves or within the environment (Bandura, 1986). Accordingly, Bandura believed that a highly efficacious teacher is more likely to use inquiry and student-centered teaching strategies than a teacher, who has a low sense of efficacy, uses teacher-directed strategies. Bandura (1986) developed the idea that our beliefs in our own abilities affect our behavior, motivation, and success or failure.

Haberman (1995) emphasized that a characteristic of urban STAR teachers is employing a high sense of teacher efficacy. The idea of efficacy is that the teachers themselves are able to make a difference in the students’ academic achievement. Milner (2002) stated that further studies need to concentrate on “the effect of contextual factors

and ways these factors interact to affect the theory of self-efficacy” (p. 29). Smylie (1990) pointed out “teacher efficacy is believed to be one of the most significant social-psychological factors influencing teachers’ work”...and “has been called central to the discourse on educational reform” (p. 48).

Milner’s (2001) study examined teachers’ planning and efficacy for student engagement. The study found both novice teachers and experienced teachers gained from their experiences in planning instruction. Further, “it was through these teachers’ drawing on other resources, such as collegial respect and support, student and parental respect and support assisted them in maintaining a sense of efficacy” (Milner, 2001, p.187). Accordingly, Milner (2001) reported that these findings appear to assist in both novice and experienced teachers retention as they experience and encounter negative experiences impacting their sense of efficacy (p. 187).

Woolfolk and Hoy (1990) examined 182 preservice teachers regarding their efficacy and beliefs about their control and motivation in the classroom. The participants responded to the Teacher Efficacy Scale (TES), which measured both teacher efficacy (TE) and personal efficacy (PE). The researchers found that personal efficacy had two related characteristics, responsibility for positive and negative student outcomes (p. 88). The findings of this study and others indicate the importance of understanding specifically how teacher efficacy is measured (Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990).

What is called teacher efficacy in a particular study may actually be teachers’ sense of political power within the school, feelings of responsibility for student successes or failures, sense of academic futility, general educational philosophy, belief

in their power to influence students, or some composite of these beliefs (Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990, p. 90). Accordingly to Woolfolk and Hoy (1990), observing the ways efficacy is defined is important to determine before intelligent conclusions can be made regarding teacher efficacy (p. 90).

Summary

This chapter examined literature investigating the eight factors of the CABI. This research investigated in-service teachers and pre-service teachers' attitudes and beliefs regarding Teacher Beliefs, School Climate, Culturally Responsive Classroom Management, Home and Community Support, Cultural Awareness, Curriculum and Instruction, Cultural Sensitivity and Teacher Efficacy. The literature review included challenges found within education today and the effects on elementary teachers of conducting assessments. Further, the impact of culturally responsive pedagogy and its' teaching in developing teachers who embrace diversity, and model respect for all students and staff was discussed.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This descriptive study examined Pre-K through second grade teachers' perceptions and third through fourth grade teachers' perceptions as measured by the Cultural Awareness and Beliefs Inventory (CABI) during 2005-06 academic year. Furthermore, this study examined the Cultural Awareness and Beliefs Inventory (Appendix A) determined statistically significant differences existed between Pre-K through second grade teachers, who focus on teaching basic skills and authentic testing, and third through fourth grade teachers are held more accountable for the success or failure of their students on state mandated tests. Further, the perceptions of the Pre-K through second grade teachers and third through fourth grade teachers were compared regarding the following eight factors: A) Teacher Beliefs (TB), B) School Climate (SC), C) Culturally Responsive Classroom Management (CRCM), D) Home and Community Support (HCS), E) Cultural Awareness (CA), F) Curriculum and Instruction (CI), G) Cultural Sensitivity (CS), and H) Teacher Efficacy (TE) as measured by the Cultural Awareness and Beliefs Inventory (Appendix A) (Webb-Johnson & Carter, 2005).

Demographics of the Study

This descriptive study was conducted in one urban district located in the southwestern region of the United States. This urban district is part of a metropolitan area, which includes several smaller urban areas. An international airport, the second largest aviation facility in the state, hotels, restaurants, upper level educational institutions and libraries are located in close proximity. According to the 2000 Census,

the area in which this district is located has a racial population of 59 percent European American, 45 percent Hispanic American, Native American, Asian/Pacific Islander and other, and 6 percent African American. The median household income for a family living in this district was \$35,518 (U.S. Census Bureau, 2000). Approximately 18.6 percent of the population's annual income is below the poverty level. This includes 24 percent of those under age 18 and 19 percent of those 65 or older (U.S. Census Bureau, 2000).

Encompassing 111 square miles in the southwestern United States, the urban district in which this study was conducted employs 3,733 teachers on more than 68 campuses, which serve a student population of 56,225 students (Roberts-Walter, 2007). The archival data used in this descriptive study was collected from the administration of the Cultural Awareness and Beliefs Inventory (CABI) to measure teachers' perceptions of cultural awareness and beliefs of teachers employed during the 2005-06 academic year in this district prior to a district in-service.

District Student Population

Enrolled in this large urban district during 2005-06 were 33,918 Hispanic American students, 17,836 African American students, 3,215 European American students, 1,238 Asian/Pacific Islander students, and 48 Native American students (Texas Education Agency [TEA], 2005) (Table 3.1).

TABLE 3.1 Ethnicity of the Urban School District's Students, 2005-06

Ethnicity	N	Percentage
Hispanic American	33,918	60
African American	17,836	32
European American	3,215	6
Asian/Pacific Islander	1,238	2
Native American/Other	48	0.08
TOTAL	33,918	100

District Elementary Population

During the 2005-2006 academic year, 26,783 elementary students attended this district. The elementary student population consisted of 16,940 Hispanic Americans, 8,186 African Americans, 1,137 European American, 490 Asian/Pacific Islanders, and 30 Native Americans (TEA, 2005) (Table 3.2).

TABLE 3.2 Ethnicity of the Urban School District's Elementary Students,
2005-06

Ethnicity	N	Percentage
Hispanic American	16,940	63
African American	8,186	31
European American	1,137	4.2
Asian/Pacific Islander	490	2
Native American	30	0.2
TOTAL	26,783	100

District Teacher Population

A total of 3,733 teachers were employed by this district. By ethnicity, the teacher population consists of 1,885 European American, 1,214 African American, 563 Hispanic American, 69 Asian/Pacific Islander and 2 Native American (TEA, 2005) (Table 3.3).

TABLE 3.3 Ethnicity of the Urban School District's Teachers, 2005-06

Ethnicity	N	Percentage
European American	1,885	51
African American	1,214	33
Hispanic American	563	15
Asian/Pacific Islander	69	2
Native American	2	0.1
TOTAL	3,733	100

District Elementary Teacher Population

The 2005-2006 urban districts' elementary teacher population totaled 1,780, which was comprised of 789 European Americans, 560 African Americans, 394 Hispanic Americans, 36 Asian/Pacific Islanders, and 1.0 Native American (TEA 2005) (Table 3.4).

TABLE 3.4 Ethnicity of the Urban Elementary School District's Teachers,
2005-06

Ethnicity	N	Percentage
European American	789	45
African American	560	31
Hispanic American	394	23
Asian/Pacific Islander	36	1
Native American	1	0.0
TOTAL	1,780	100

Responding Elementary Teacher Population

The elementary school teacher population responding to the CABI numbered 618. The ethnicity of responding elementary teacher population included 163 European Americans, 163 Hispanic Americans, 87 African Americans, 9 Asian/Pacific Islanders, Native Americans and 69 Other and Missing 115 (or 19 percent) (Table 3.5).

TABLE 3.5 Ethnicity of the Urban School District's Elementary Teachers Responding
to the CABI 2005-06

Ethnicity	N	Percentage
European American	163	26
Hispanic American	163	26
African American	87	14
Asian/Pacific Islander	9	2
Native American	12	2
Other	69	11
TOTAL	618	100
Missing	115	19

Population

The population of this descriptive study was Pre-K through fourth grade in-service teachers employed in one large urban district located in the southwestern United States.

Sample

The sample population for this descriptive study included 618 in-service elementary teachers, who responded to the CABI. The Pre-K through second grade elementary teacher population totaled 399 (or 65 percent) the third through fourth grade

elementary teacher population numbered 219 (or 35 percent). These teachers were employed at 22 elementary schools who were asked to participate in the original study.

Responding Pre-K through Second Grade Teachers

The Pre-K through second grade elementary teacher population totaled 399 of the 618 total Pre-K through fourth grade teacher participants. This group consisted of 131 Hispanic Americans, 90 European Americans, 44 African Americans, 10 Native Americans, 6 Asian/Pacific Islanders, 45 Other and missing 73 (Table 3.6).

TABLE 3.6 Ethnicity of the Urban School District's Pre-K through 2nd Grade Teachers

Responding to the CABI, 2005-06

Ethnicity	N	Percentage of Pre-K -2 nd Grade Teacher Respondents
Hispanic American	131	33
European American	90	22
African American	44	11
Native American	10	3
Asian/Pacific Islander	6	0.2
Other	45	11
Missing	73	18
TOTAL	326	100

Responding Third through Fourth Grade Teachers

The third through fourth grade teacher population consisted of 219 (or 35 percent) of the 618 teachers in the sample population. Of these, 73 European Americans, 43 African Americans, 32 Hispanic Americans, 3 Asian/Pacific Islanders, 2 Native American, and 24 Other, and 42 Missing taught third through fourth grade (Table 3.7).

TABLE 3.7 Ethnicity of the Urban School District's 3rd through 4th Grade Teachers Responding to the CABI, 2005-06

Ethnicity	N	Percentage of 3 rd -4 th Grade Teacher Respondents
European American	73	33
African American	43	20
Hispanic American	32	14
Asian/Pacific Islander	3	2
Native American	2	1
Other	24	11
Missing	42	19
TOTAL	177	100

Comparison of the Responding Pre-K through Second and Third through Fourth Grade Teachers

The ethnicities noted in the demographics of the Pre-K through second grade teacher population in comparison to the 3rd through fourth grade and the overall district populations were not the same. The Pre-K through second grade responding teachers had a higher percentage of Hispanic Americans than that of the district. However, the district's 3rd through fourth grade teachers employed European Americans as a majority of the teaching staff. The next ethnic group represented in the Pre-K through second grade teacher population was European American and then African American (Table 3.8).

The district teacher's population correlated with the responding third through fourth grade teacher population in ethnicity in the following order of European American, African American and Hispanic American. However, the district included Asian/Pacific Islander in fourth position and Native American last. The third through fourth grade teachers had these reversed with Native American in fourth position and Asian/Pacific Islander last as compared to the district teacher ethnicity population. More Hispanic American teachers were employed in the lower grade levels than the upper elementary grade levels.

TABLE 3.8. Ethnicity of District in Comparison to Pre-K – 2nd and 3rd – 4th Teachers

Responding to the CABI, 2005-06

Ethnicity	District N	District Percentage	Pre-K- 2 nd N	Pre-K-2 nd Percentage	3 rd -4 th N	3 rd -4 th Percentage
European American	1,885	51	90	22	73	33
African American	1,214	33	44	11	43	20
Hispanic American	563	15	131	33	32	14
Asian/Pacific Islander & Native American/	69	2	51	11	3	2
Other	2	0.1	10	3	26	12
Missing Ethnicity			73	18	42	19
TOTAL	3,733	100	399	100	219	100

Procedures

The procedure for this descriptive study included examining archival data collected from teachers employed by an urban district in the southwestern United States. The Cultural Awareness and Beliefs inventory was administered to 3,733 Pre-K through grade 12 urban public school teachers during the fall semester of 2005. According to Roberts-Walter (2007) study 1,873 teachers completed and returned the 46-item Likert

scale inventory. The respondents answered the survey questions on a scantron form. The forms were then electronically scored. All the data were converted into Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) file format. Of the information gathered from the Pre-Kindergarten through grade 12 teachers, this descriptive study examined the responses of six hundred, eighteen Pre-K through fourth grade teachers employed at 22 elementary schools within that urban district.

The original archival data was received as reversed scored due to the original CABI having a Likert scale indicating 1= Strongly Agree; 2=Agree; 3=Disagree; and 4=Strongly Disagree. The Likert scale was then reversed scored to correlate with the original intentions of the CABI. Therefore, in the scale higher mean of the scale represents a greater degree of agreement with the constructs of the CABI. Furthermore, the values of the Likert scale were aligned as follows: The respondents' indication of "1" was changed to a "4" or Strongly Agree; The respondents' notation of "2" became a "3" or Agree; The respondents' denotation of "3" was changed to a "2" or Disagree; and The respondents' designation of "4" became a "1" or Strongly Disagree.

Items in TB, CS, and TE were then reversed scored due to their wording "to help prevent response bias" (Pallant, 2007, p. 83) on the Cultural Awareness and Beliefs Inventory (See Tables 3.10, 3.11, 3.12). By completing this step of reverse scoring, all items in the scale for TB, CS, and TE are in the same direction, so that higher scores indicate higher levels of agreement by the respondents (Pallant, 2007). Then the original archival data collected from the responding elementary teachers was further

disaggregated into groups of Pre-K through second grade and third through fourth grade teachers.

Descriptive statistics were conducted using Social Sciences (SPSS) file format. Reliability of the CABI for Pre-K through fourth grade was established and noted in Table 3.13. In determining the distribution for each group, the mean, 5% Trimmed Mean, standard deviation; Skewness, Kurtosis, and Kolmogorov-Smirnov were computed. Furthermore, to establish homogeneity of variance, a Levene's Test was analyzed. Finally, a Kruskal-Wallis was used to establish whether statistically significant differences existed between the two groups of teachers' perceptions. If no significant difference is calculated, test will cease (Pallant, 2007). If the Kruskal-Wallis indicates statistically significant difference between the two groups, according to Pallant (2007) the Mean Rank will identify the group supporting the construct.

Instruments

The Cultural Awareness and Beliefs Inventory (CABI) developed by Webb-Johnson and Carter (2005) measured the perceptions and attitudes of urban teachers' cultural awareness and beliefs. The CABI included a 46-item inventory based on eight factors including: 1) Teacher Beliefs, 2) School Climate, 3) Culturally Responsive Classroom Management, 4) Home and Community Support, 5) Cultural Awareness, 6) Curriculum and Instruction, 7) Cultural Sensitivity, 8) Teacher Efficacy (Roberts-Walter, 2007; Webb-Johnson & Carter, 2005).

The Cultural Awareness Beliefs Inventory (CABI), developed by Webb-Johnson and Carter (2005), was administered to 3,733 Pre-K through grade 12 urban public

school teachers located in southeastern Texas in 2005 fall semester prior to a district in-service. Respondents numbered 1,873 Pre-K through grade 12 teachers who completed the 46-item Likert scale inventory. Each respondent from the study (Roberts-Walter, 2007) rated forty-six items on a 1-4 Likert scale using A = (4) as strongly agree, B = (3) as agree, C = (2) as disagree, and D = (1) as strongly disagree. According to Gall, Gall and Borg (2003), the Likert scale is commonly used as an attitude scale.

Roberts-Walter (2007) determined that the reliability of the instrument was established at 0.80. Therefore, the CABI was found to “be a valid and reliable instrument that will assist educational leaders in planning effective professional development to include the implementation of cultural responsive pedagogy” (Roberts-Walter, 2007, p. 135). However, Roberts-Walter (2007) found of the original twelve factors, only eight were retained since four factors and ten items were deleted from further analysis due to lacking sufficient factor coefficients. Therefore, this descriptive study analyzed Pre-K through 4th grade elementary teachers’ perceptions of the 36-item Cultural Awareness and Beliefs Inventory.

The reliability of the CABI as determined by the Pre-K through 2nd grade teachers and third through fourth grade teachers’ perceptions was established as follows: The Cronbach’s alpha coefficient for SC, CRCM, CA, HCS, CI, CS and TB, TE, were measured at .76, .75, .60, .51, .51, .51, and .39, .39 respectively (Table 3.11). To investigate the internal consistency of the eight factors, Cronbach’s alpha coefficient was utilized. The Cronbach’s alpha coefficient for the 36-item inventory was established at .60, while the alpha for the eight factors, or scales ranged from 39 percent for TB and TE

to 76 percent for SC (Table 3.11). According to Landis and Koch's (1977) scales were denoted as (1) .0 to .20 "slightly reliable"; (2) .21 to .40 as "fairly reliable"; (3) .41 to .60 as "moderately reliable"; (4) .61 to .80 as "substantially reliable"; and (5) .81 to 1.0 as "almost perfect" (p. 168).

TABLE 3.9 Likert Scale Range of Values/Weight of Mean

Agreement Level	Range of Values / Weights of Mean
Strongly Agree	3.25 – 4.00
Agree	2.50 – 3.24
Disagree	1.75 – 2.49
Strongly Disagree	1.00 – 1.74

Consequently the reliability of the scales were reported as the following, SC, and CRCM were "substantially reliable" with reliability measuring .76, and .75 (Landis & Koch, 1977, p. 168). Factors CA, HCS, CI, and CS were noted at "moderately reliable" with reliability measuring .60, .51, .51, (Landis & Koch, 1977, p. 168). Further the reliability of TB and TE were measured as "fairly reliable" with both having a reliability of .39 (Landis & Koch, 1977, p. 168) (See Table 3.13). According to the Landis and Koch (1977) scale this study's reliability of 0.60 would be considered "moderately reliable" (Landis & Koch, 1977, p. 168).

TABLE 3.10 Reversed Scored Statements Measuring Teacher Beliefs

Item No.	Factor I Items: Teacher Beliefs
31	I believe African American students consider performing well in schools as "acting-White".
32	I believe African American students are not eager to learn as White students.
34	I believe students who live in poverty are more difficult to teach.
35	I believe African American students do not bring as many strengths to the classrooms as their White peers.
38	I believe I would prefer to work with students and parents whose cultures are similar to mine.
42	I believe I have experienced difficulty in getting African American families involved in their children's education.
52	I believe students from certain ethnic groups appear lazy when it comes to academic engagement.

TABLE 3.11 Reversed Scored Statements Measuring Cultural Sensitivity

Item No.	Factor VII Items: Cultural Sensitivity
46	I believe that in a society with as many racial groups as the United States, I would accept the use of ethnic jokes or phrases by students.
47	I believe there are times when “racial statements” should be ignored.
48	I believe a child should be referred “for testing” if learning difficulties appear to be due to cultural differences.

TABLE 3.12 Reversed Scored Statements Measuring Teacher Efficacy

Item No.	Factor VIII Items: Teacher Efficacy
23	I believe some students do not want to learn.
25	I believe there are factors beyond the control of teachers that cause student failure.
49	I believe teaching of ethnic customs and traditions is not the responsibility of public school personnel.
53	I believe in-service training focuses too much on multicultural issues.

TABLE 3.13. Reliability of the CABI's Factors as Determined by

Pre-K through 4 th Grade Teachers' Perceptions		
Factor	Reliability	Landis and Koch Scale
Teacher Beliefs	.39	Fairly Reliable
School Climate	.76	Substantially Reliable
Culturally Responsive Classroom Management	.75	Substantially Reliable
Home and Community Support	.51	Moderately Reliable
Cultural Awareness	.60	Moderately Reliable
Curriculum and Instruction	.51	Moderately Reliable
Cultural Sensitivity	.51	Moderately Reliable
Teacher Efficacy	.39	Fairly Reliable
Overall Factor Reliability	.60	Moderately Reliable

Data Collection

To answer the research question driving this descriptive study, archival data was examined (Roberts-Walter, 2007). According to Calhoun (1994), archival data consist of “existing sources of data are those items currently available in the files or archives of the school or of individual staff members” (p. 53).

Research Design

A descriptive research design (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2003) was used to examine whether statistically significant differences exist between Pre-K through second grade

elementary teachers' perceptions and third through fourth grade teachers' perceptions of the eight factors including: A) Teachers Beliefs, B) School Climate, C) Culturally Responsive Classroom Management, D) Home and Community Support, E) Cultural Awareness, F) Curriculum and Instruction, G) Cultural Sensitivity, and H) Teacher Efficacy as measured by the Cultural Awareness and Beliefs Inventory (CABI). In this descriptive study archival quantitative data was gathered for research investigating the sample population's responses to the CABI. According to Gall, Gall, and Borg (2003) descriptive data consist of "quantitative research, a type of investigation that measures characteristics of a sample or population on pre-specified variables" (p.623).

Furthermore, if statistical significant differences exist between the perceptions of Pre-K through second grade teachers, who focus more on teaching basic skills and utilize authentic assessments, and the perceptions of third through fourth grade teachers' who are held more accountable based on results of state mandated testing, additionally synthesis of the data will be required.

Plan for Analysis

Data were analyzed using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) computer software. To answer the research question driving this descriptive study (Gall, Gall and Borg, 2003), archival data collected from 618 Pre-K through fourth grade teachers responding to the CABI were examined.

This study examined, 618 Pre-K through fourth grade teachers' perceptions of the eight factors of the CABI. Furthermore, this study compared the CABI responses of Pre-K through second grade teachers, who focus more on basic skills and authentic

testing with third through fourth grade teachers who are accountable for students' scores on state mandated tests.

Research question

What is the difference between Pre-K through second grade teachers' perceptions and third grade through fourth grade teachers' perceptions of cultural awareness and beliefs as measured by the Cultural Awareness Beliefs Inventory in one urban district?

The Cultural Awareness and Beliefs Inventory included the following eight factors:

- A) Teachers Beliefs,
- B) School Climate,
- C) Culturally Responsive Classroom Management,
- D) Home and Community Support,
- E) Cultural Awareness,
- F) Curriculum and Instruction,
- G) Cultural Sensitivity
- H) Teacher Efficacy.

These eight factors were examined individually based on the perceptions of two groups, which included: 399 (or 65 percent of the sample) Pre-K through second grade teachers and 219 (or 35 percent of the sample) third through fourth grade teachers. In determining whether a statistically significant difference exists between Pre-K through second grade teachers' perceptions and third through fourth grade teachers' perceptions as measured by the Cultural Awareness and Beliefs Inventory (CABI), descriptive statistics were calculated. Due to the wording, Teacher Beliefs', items 31, 32, 34, 35, 38, and 42,

Cultural Sensitivity's items, 46, 57, and 48, and Teacher Efficacy's items, 23, 24, 49, and 53, these statements were reversed scored before total scale score's scales were calculated (Pallant, 2007) (see Tables, 3.10, 3.11, 3.12). This ensured that high scores would indicate high levels of agreement with the items measuring the construct.

Next, the survey average of each participant within the sample groups was calculated. An overall mean of the 399 (or 65 percent) Pre-K through second grade group and 219 (or 35 percent) third through fourth grade group were calculated. In determining the distribution for each group, the mean, 5% Trimmed Mean, standard deviation, Skewness, Kurtosis, and Kolmogorov-Smirnov were assessed. To establish the homogeneity of variance, a Levene's Test was analyzed. Finally, a Kruskal-Wallis was used to establish the statistical difference in the perceptions between the groups of teachers. If no significant difference is calculated, post hoc analysis will not be conducted (Pallant, 2007). According to Pallant (2007, p. 294-295) if the Kruskal-Wallis test signifies a significant difference of one of the eight factors, "an inspection of the Mean Ranks for the groups" will indicate the group having the highest score regarding that particular factor.

Summary

This chapter described the demographics of the community in which the descriptive study took place. Archival data was used in this descriptive statistical research design. The methodology utilized to examine the data gathered from the original responses to the Cultural Awareness and Beliefs Inventory was discussed. The reliability of the scales were reported as noting a 0.60 score; thus, establishing reliability

of the scale as being “moderately reliable” (Landis & Koch, 1977, p. 168) The population, sample, instrument, research design, procedures, data collection, plan for analysis, and a rationale for the research question were also provided.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

In this descriptive study of teachers' perceptions as measured by the Cultural Awareness and Beliefs Inventory (CABI), archival data was analyzed to determine the existence of differences in teachers' perceptions of Cultural Awareness and Beliefs based on upper and lower elementary grade levels. The sample examined in this descriptive study included 399 (or 65 percent) Pre-K through second grade teachers and 219 (or 35 percent) third through fourth grade teachers employed in an urban district located in the southwestern United States. The sample was separated to investigate any differences in teachers' perceptions based upon the grade level teachers were employed.

Developed by Webb-Johnson and Carter (2005), the Cultural Awareness Beliefs Inventory (CABI) was administered to in-service teachers in an urban school district to measure urban teachers' perceptions, attitudes and beliefs. The inventory incorporated eight factors, which included: A) Teachers Beliefs (TB), B) School Climate (SC), C) Culturally Responsive Classroom Management (CRCM), D) Home and Community Support (HCS), E) Cultural Awareness (CA), F) Curriculum and Instruction (CI), G) Cultural Sensitivity (CS), and H) Teacher Efficacy (TE) (Roberts-Walter, 2007). The quantitative section of the inventory asked respondents to rate the 46 items on a 1-4 point Likert scale. The original archival data was received as reversed scored due to the CABI having a Likert scale indicating 1= Strongly Agree; 2=Agree; 3=Disagree; and 4=Strongly Disagree. The Likert scale was then reversed scored to correlate with the original intentions of the CABI. Therefore, in the scale higher mean of the scale

represents a greater degree of agreement with the constructs of the CABI. Furthermore, the values of the Likert scale were aligned as follows: The respondents' indication of "1" was changed to a "4" or Strongly Agree; The respondents' notation of "2" became a "3" or Agree; The respondents' denotation of "3" was changed to a "2" or Disagree; and The respondents' designation of "4" became a "1" or Strongly Disagree.

Items in TB, CS, and TE were then reversed scored due to their wording "to help prevent response bias" (Pallant, 2007, p. 83) on the Cultural Awareness and Beliefs Inventory (See Tables 3.10, 3.11, 3.12). By completing this step of reverse scoring, all items in the scale for TB, CS, and TE are in the same direction, so that higher scores indicate higher levels of agreement by the respondents (Pallant, 2007). Then the original archival data collected from the responding elementary teachers was further disaggregated into groups of Pre-K through second grade and third through fourth grade teachers.

According to Gall, Gall and Borg (2003), the Likert scale is commonly used as an attitude scale. In a previous study, Roberts-Walter (2007) found of the original twelve factors measured by the CABI, only eight were retained since ten items and four factors were deleted from further analysis due to lacking sufficient factor coefficients. Therefore, this descriptive study will analyze elementary teachers' perceptions of the 36-item CABI.

This descriptive study examined the perceptions of 618 Pre-K through fourth grade teachers who responded to the CABI. Due to accountability at the forefront of educational reform and increased diversity in the classrooms, it was determined that this

study would investigate differences in teachers' perceptions based on grade level in which the teachers were employed. While Pre-K through second grade teachers teach basic skills and utilize authentic assessments, third through fourth grade teachers are held more accountable for the success or failure of their students on state mandated assessments. Therefore, the data was further disaggregated to investigate whether differences existed in the teachers' perceptions of the items in the CABI based on the grade level in which they taught.

Research Question

What is the difference between Pre-K through second grade teachers' perceptions and third grade through fourth grade teachers' perceptions of cultural awareness and beliefs in one urban district? The Cultural Awareness and Beliefs Inventory included the following eight factors:

- A. Teachers Beliefs
- B. School Climate
- C. Culturally Responsive Classroom Management
- D. Home and Community Support
- E. Cultural Awareness
- F. Curriculum and Instruction
- G. Cultural Sensitivity
- H. Teacher Efficacy

Cultural Awareness and Beliefs Inventory

To determine whether a statistically significant difference existed between the 399 (or 65 percent) Pre-K through second grade teachers' perceptions and the 219 (or 35 percent) third through fourth grade teachers' perceptions, both group's responses to the CABI were analyzed. Three of the eight factors were reversed scored due to their statements, which included (A) Teacher Beliefs, (G) Cultural Sensitivity and (H) Teacher Efficacy, thus, the scores were reversed due to their wording so that higher scores indicated a stronger agreement with each factor of the CABI. Furthermore, to desegregate the data, a more sensitive Likert scale range value table was used to determine the weight of the mean (Table 4.1).

TABLE 4.1 Likert Scale Range of Values/Weight of Mean

Agreement Level	Range of Values / Weights of Mean
Strongly Agree	3.25 – 4.00
Agree	2.50 – 3.24
Disagree	1.75 – 2.49
Strongly Disagree	1.00 – 1.74

After calculating a mean for each participant, a macro mean of the CABI numbered 2.72 with a standard deviation measuring 0.21. When the macro mean were

compared to the 5% Trimmed Mean of 2.72, it was concluded that the outliers failed to have a significant effect on the mean (Table 4.2). Concluding, overall the Pre-K through fourth grade responses to the CABI were in agreement to the items of the eight factors.

TABLE 4.2. Preliminary Tests of Normal Distribution of the CABI

Tests	Values
Mean	2.72
5 % Trimmed Mean	2.72
Standard Deviation	0.21
Skewness	0.17
Kurtosis	3.41
Kolmogorov-Smirnov	0.00

The Skewness statistics designated a positive skew (Pallant, 2007) (Table 4.2). The Kurtosis indicated a somewhat central peak as seen on the histogram (Figure 4.1). In addition, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test and the normal probability plot failed to indicate a normal distribution as seen in Figure 4.2, thus appearing to be more in agreement than disagreement to the items on the CABI.

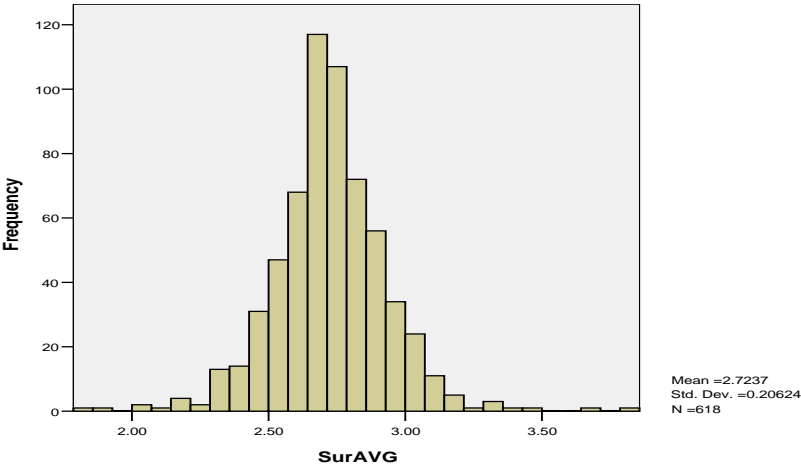


FIGURE 4.1 Histogram of Combined Mean of the CABI

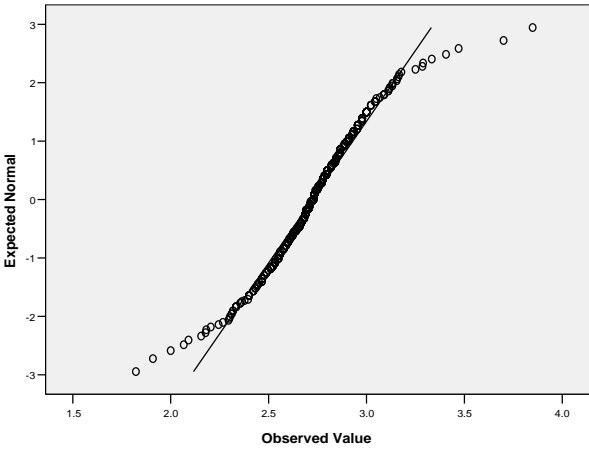


FIGURE 4.2 Normal Q-Q Plot of Combined Mean of the CABI

To investigate the existence of statistically significant differences between Pre-K through second grade teachers' perceptions and third through fourth grade teachers' perceptions as measured by the CABI, the mean and medians were examined. The mean and median of Pre-K through second grade teachers' perceptions had the same value of 2.73, while both standard deviations measured 0.19. Accordingly, it appeared that both group of teachers were in agreement with the item factors of the CABI.

The mean and median of third through fourth grade teachers' perceptions were determined to be the same at 2.71 with the standard deviation calculated at 0.23. The Levene's Test result of 0.60 indicated the variances of the two groups of teachers' perceptions were similar. The Kruskal-Wallis Test, a non-parametric test, determined the value of $p = 0.16$, which was greater than $p < 0.05$; thereby, indicating a lack of significant difference between the Pre-K through second grade teachers' perceptions and third through fourth grade teachers' perceptions of the CABI factors overall (Table 4.3).

The following section of the research examined the eight factors as measured by the CABI and the results of analyzing the data. The eight factors were inspected to determine the values of the means, standard deviation, 5% Trimmed Means, Skewness, Kurtosis, and the Kolmogorov-Smirnov.

TABLE 4.3. Tests of Statistical Differences of the CABI

Groups	N	Percent	Analyses	Test Values
Pre-K through Second			Mean	2.73
Grade Teachers'	399	65	SD	0.19
Perceptions			Median	2.73
Third through Fourth			Mean	2.71
Grade Teachers'	219	35	SD	0.23
Perceptions			Median	2.71
			Levene's Test	0.60
			Kruskal-Wallis	0.16
TOTALS	618	100		

Teacher Beliefs

Prior to analysis, the responses to the statements measuring Teacher Beliefs were reversed scored due to their wording on the Cultural Awareness and Beliefs Inventory (see Tables 3.10). The wording of 31, 32, 34, 35, 38, 42, and 52 measuring Teacher Beliefs were “reversed to help prevent response bias” (Pallant, 2007, p. 83) thus, so that

higher scores indicated high levels of agreement by the respondents to the constructs of Teacher Beliefs (Pallant, 2007).

Teacher Beliefs respondents included 597 of Pre-K through fourth grade teachers. In determining whether a statistically significant difference existed between the 385 Pre-K through second grade teachers' perceptions and the 212 third through fourth grade teachers' perceptions, a mean of the factor, Teacher Beliefs, were calculated at 2.37 with a standard deviation calculated at 0.35. The mean was compared to a 5% Trimmed Mean of 2.36. Therefore, the outliers appeared to not have a significant effect on the mean (Table 4.4). According to the Likert scale range, the teachers appeared to perceive a disagreement with the items of the factor.

When examining the distribution of the responses to the CABI, the Skewness on the histogram indicated a positive skew (Pallant, 2007) (Table 4.4). Moreover, the Kurtosis suggested an undetermined peak as seen on the histogram of Teacher Beliefs (Figure 4.3). Further, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test and the Normal Q-Q Plot failed to reveal a normal distribution as noted in Figure 4.4.

TABLE 4.4 Normal Distribution of Teacher Beliefs
as Measured by the CABI

Tests	Values
Mean	2.37
5 % Trimmed Mean	2.36
Standard Deviation	0.35
Skewness	0.23
Kurtosis	0.54
Kolmogorov-Smirnov	0.00

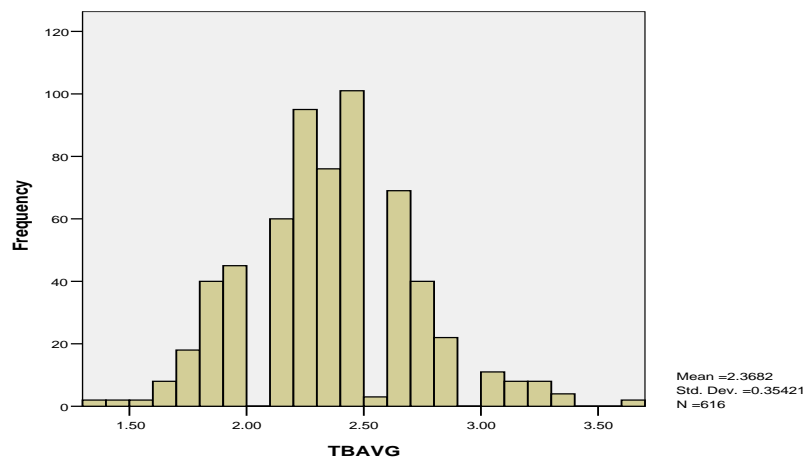


FIGURE 4.3. Histogram of Teacher Beliefs as Measured by the CABI

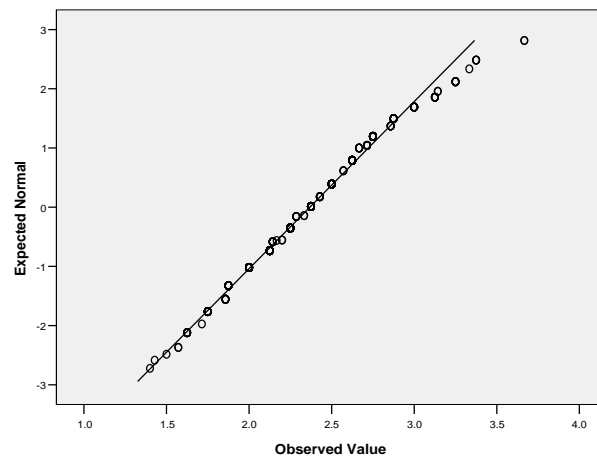


FIGURE 4.4. Normal Q-Q Plot of Teacher Beliefs as Measured
by the CABI

To determine whether a statistically significant difference existed between Pre-K through second and third through fourth grade teachers' perceptions, both means and medians were examined. Both groups equally disagreed with the items of the factor, Teacher Beliefs. The Levene's Test ascertained the variances were the same for both groups. Furthermore, the Kruskal-Wallis failed to reveal any statistical significance difference between the two groups (Table 4.5). Concluding, no statistically significant difference existed between the Pre-K through second grade teachers' perceptions and third through fourth grade teachers' perceptions for the factor Teacher Beliefs. However, both groups appeared to perceive disagreement with the items regarding Teacher Beliefs.

TABLE 4.5 Tests of Statistical Differences of Teachers’
Perceptions of Teacher Beliefs as Measured by the CABI

Groups	N	Percent	Analyses	Test Values
Pre-K through Second Grade Teachers’ Perceptions	397	65	Mean SD Median	2.39 0.35 2.38
Third through Fourth Grade Teachers’ Perceptions	217	35	Mean SD Median	2.34 0.36 2.38
			Levene’s Test	0.76
			Kruskal- Wallis	0.08
TOTALS	614	100		

School Climate

Total respondents to the factor School Climate numbered 614 Pre-K through fourth grade teachers. In determining whether a statistically significant difference existed

between 397 Pre-K through second grade teachers' perceptions and 217 third through fourth grade teachers' perceptions of the factor, School Climate, the responses were analyzed. The mean of School Climate was calculated at 3.32, while the standard deviation measured 0.50. When the means were compared to the 5% Trimmed Mean of 3.35, it appeared that the outliers failed to have a significant effect on the mean, thus both groups appeared to be in agreement with the items of the factor School Climate (Table 4.6).

TABLE 4.6 Normal Distribution of School Climate
as Measured by the CABI

Tests	Values
Mean	3.32
5 % Trimmed Mean	3.35
Standard Deviation	0.50
Skewness	-0.64
Kurtosis	0.78
Kolmogorov-Smirnov	0.00

The Skewness value designated a negative skew (Pallant, 2007) (Table 4.6). The Kurtosis value failed to specify a central peak as seen on the histogram (Pallant, 2007) (Figure 4.5). To establish the distribution of the responses to the survey, the

Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test and the Normal Q-Q Plot failed to show a normal distribution seen in Figure 4.6.

The mean and the median were evaluated and compared of the two groups Pre-K through second and third through fourth grade teachers' perceptions of the factor School Climate. Both Pre-K through second and third through fourth grade teachers' means appeared to indicate a strong agreement with the items measuring the construct, School Climate. The Levene's Test indicated the variances were the same for the two groups of teachers' perceptions for the factor, School Climate. The Kruskal-Wallis test also failed to indicate a significance difference between the two groups of teachers' perceptions of the factor, School Climate (Table 4.7). Furthermore, no statistically significant difference was indicated between the perceptions of the two groups of teachers for the factor School Climate.

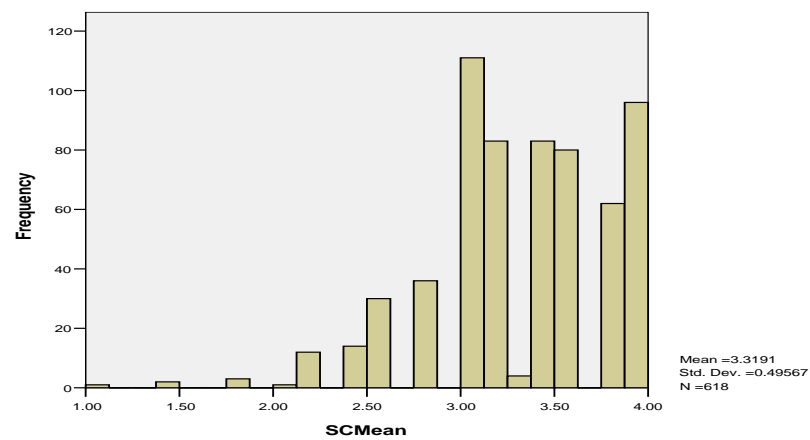


FIGURE 4.5 Histogram of School Climate as Measured by CABI

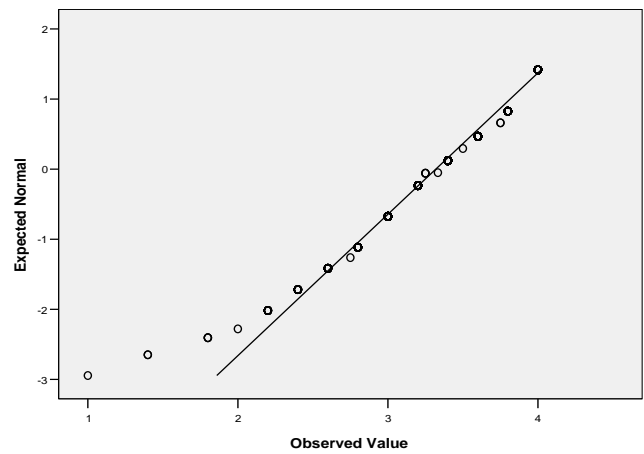


FIGURE 4.6 Normal Q-Q Plot of School Climate as Measured by the CABI

TABLE 4.7 Tests of Statistical Differences of Teacher's Perceptions
of School Climate as Measured by the CABI

Groups	N	Percent	Analyses	Test Values
Pre-K through Second Grade Teachers' Perceptions	397	65	Mean SD Median	3.33 0.50 3.40
Third through Fourth Grade Teachers' Perceptions	217	35	Mean SD Median	3.28 0.49 3.20
			Levene's Test	0.44
			Kruskal- Wallis	0.14
TOTALS	614	100		

Culturally Responsive Classroom Management

The respondents of Culturally Responsive Classroom Management were calculated at 611 Pre-K through fourth grade teachers. In inspecting whether a difference existed between the 394 Pre-K through second grade teachers' perceptions and 217 third

through fourth grade teachers' perceptions of the factor, Culturally Responsive Classroom Management, teachers' responses to the specific questions of the CABI related to Culturally Responsive Classroom Management were analyzed. A mean of the factor calculated at 3.36 with a standard deviation of 0.58. The mean were compared to the 5% Trimmed Mean of 3.39. Therefore, it was concluded that the outliers failed to have a significant effect on the mean (Table 4.8), thus appearing to designate a strong agreement of the two groups to the factor Culturally Responsive Classroom Management.

TABLE 4.8 Normal Distribution of Culturally Responsive Classroom Management as Measured by the CABI

Tests	Values
Mean	3.36
5 % Trimmed Mean	3.39
Standard Deviation	0.58
Skewness	-0.62
Kurtosis	0.71
Kolmogorov-Smirnov	0.00

To inspect the distribution of the teachers' responses to the CABI, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test indicated a significance of 0.00, which specified the violation of the assumption of normality. In addition, the Skewness statistic designated a negative skew (Pallant, 2007) (Table 4.8). The Kurtosis value failed to indicate a central peak as noted on the histogram (Pallant, 2007) (Figure 4.7). Furthermore, the Normal Q-Q Plot failed to indicate a normal distribution as displayed in Figure 4.8.

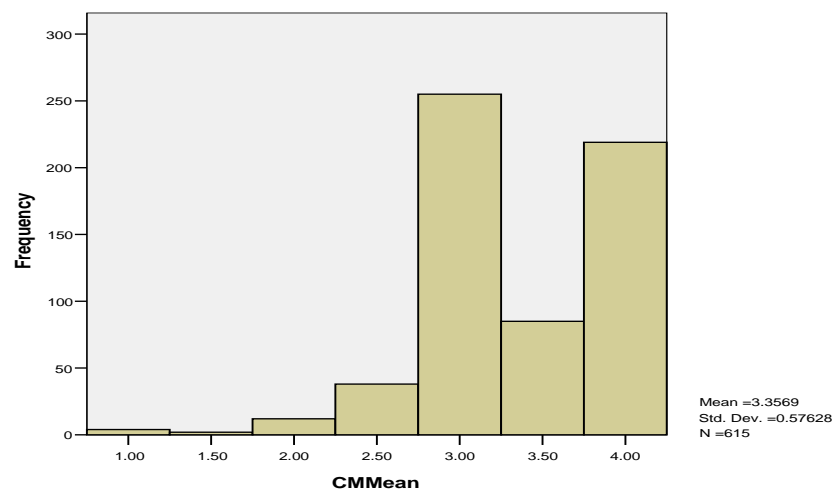


FIGURE 4.7 Histogram of Culturally Responsive Classroom Managementas Measured by the CABI

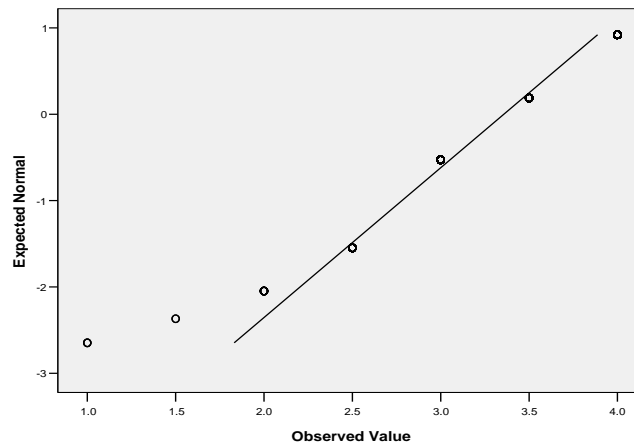


FIGURE 4.8 Normal Q-Q Plot of Culturally Responsive Classroom Management as Measured by the CABI

To identify whether a statistically significant difference existed between Pre-K through second grade and third through fourth grade teachers' perceptions of the factor, Culturally Responsive Classroom Management, the mean and median were analyzed. Both groups appeared to strongly agree with the items of the factor Culturally Responsive Classroom Management. The Levene's Test result indicated that the variances were the same for the two groups' perceptions of the factor, Culturally Responsive Classroom Management. The Kruskal-Wallis value indicated the absence of a significant difference between the two groups of teachers' perceptions of the factor, Culturally Responsive Classroom Management (Table 4.9). Thereby, concluding no statistically significant difference existed between the two groups regarding the factor Culturally Responsive Classroom Management. Both groups of teachers' perceptions

appeared to indicate a strong agreement with the items regarding the factor Culturally Responsive Classroom Management.

TABLE 4.9 Tests of Statistical Differences of Teacher's Perceptions of Culturally Responsive Classroom Management as Measured by the CABI

Groups	N	Percent	Analyses	Test Values
Pre-K through Second			Mean	3.33
Grade Teachers'	394	64	SD	0.58
Perceptions			Median	3.00
Third through Fourth			Mean	3.40
Grade Teachers'	217	36	SD	0.55
Perceptions			Median	3.50
			Levene's	0.31
			Test	
			Kruskal-Wallis	0.10
TOTAL	611	100		

Home and Community Support

Of the statements focusing on Home and Community Support, the Pre-K fourth grade respondents numbered 610. The 393 Pre-K through second grade teachers' perceptions and 217 third through fourth mean score were calculated at 2.92 appearing to indicate an agreement with the construct of the factor Home and Community Support. When comparing the mean to the 5% Trimmed Mean of 2.92, it was revealed that the outliers failed to have a significant effect on the mean (Table 4.10).

TABLE 4.10 Normal Distribution of Home and Community Support
as Measured by the CABI

Tests	Values
Mean	2.92
5 % Trimmed Mean	2.92
Standard Deviation	0.45
Skewness	-0.12
Kurtosis	0.03
Kolmogorov-Smirnov	0.00

To establish the distribution of the responses regarding Home and Community Support on the CABI, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test indicated a significance of 0.00,

which specified the violation of the assumption of normality (Pallant, 2007). Also, the Skewness statistic designated a negative skew (Pallant, 2007) (Table 4.10). The Kurtosis failed to indicate a central peak as seen on the histogram (Pallant, 2007) (Figure 4.9) and the Normal Q-Q Plot failed to designate a normal distribution as seen in Figure 4.10, thus, indicating no statistically significant differences between the two groups of teachers' perceptions regarding the factor, Home and Community Support.

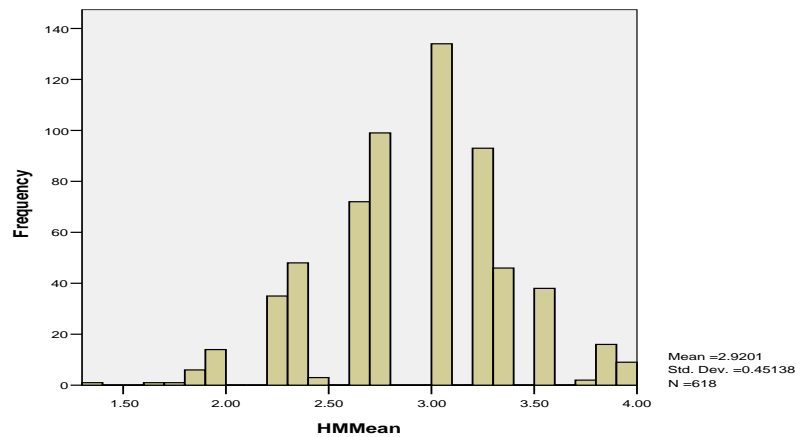


FIGURE 4.9 Histogram of Home and Community Support
as Measured by the CABI

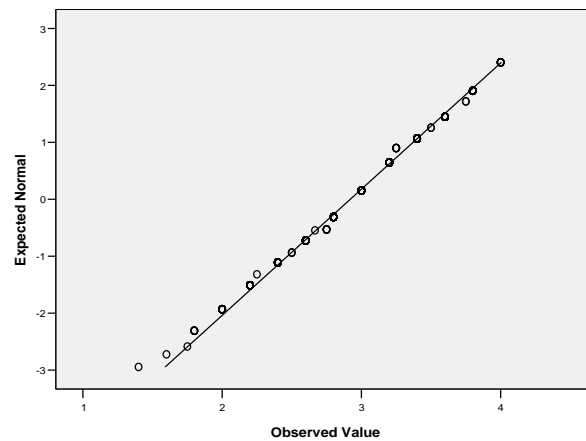


FIGURE 4.10 Normal Q-Q Plot of Home and Community Support
as Measured by the CABI

To determine whether a statistically significant difference existed between the two groups Pre-K through second grade and third through fourth grade teachers' perceptions of the factor, Home and Community Support, as measured by the CABI, the mean and medians were investigated. Both groups suggested an agreement to the items in the factor Home and Community Support. Furthermore the Levene's Test indicated the variances were the same for the two groups of teachers' perceptions of the factor. Furthermore, the Kruskal-Wallis value failed to determine a statistically significant difference between the two groups of teachers' perceptions regarding the factor, Home and Community Support (Table 4.11). Findings appeared to indicate an agreement with the items of the factor, Home and Community Support.

TABLE 4.11 Tests of Statistical Differences of Teacher's Perceptions
of Home and Community Support as Measured by the CABI

Groups	N	Percent	Analyses	Test Values
Pre-K through Second Grade Teachers' Perceptions	393	64	Mean SD Median	2.92 0.45 3.00
Third through Fourth Grade Teachers' Perceptions	217	36	Mean SD Median	2.90 0.43 3.00
			Levene's Test	0.44
			Kruskal- Wallis	0.23
TOTALS	610	100		

Cultural Awareness

Pre-K through fourth grade teachers responding to the statements focusing on Cultural Awareness was calculated at 607. The 392 Pre-K through second grade teachers'

perceptions and the 215 third through fourth grade teachers' perceptions of the factor, Cultural Awareness were analyzed. The mean of the Cultural Awareness was calculated at 3.08 which indicated an agreement with the items of the factor Cultural Sensitivity. When the mean was compared to a 5% Trimmed Mean of 3.08, it concluded that the outliers failed to have a significant effect on the mean (Table 4.12). These findings indicate an agreement to the items of the factor Cultural Awareness by both groups.

TABLE 4.12 Normal Distribution of Cultural Awareness
as Measured by the CABI

Tests	Values
Mean	3.08
5 % Trimmed Mean	3.08
Standard Deviation	0.47
Skewness	-0.26
Kurtosis	1.51
Kolmogorov-Smirnov	0.00

To determine the distribution of the responses to the survey, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test failed to indicate the assumption of normality. The Skewness Statistic indicated a negative skew (Table 4.12). The Kurtosis value failed to specify a central

peak as shown on the histogram (Figure 4.11). In addition, the Normal Q-Q Plot failed to indicate a normal distribution as illustrated in Figure 4.12.

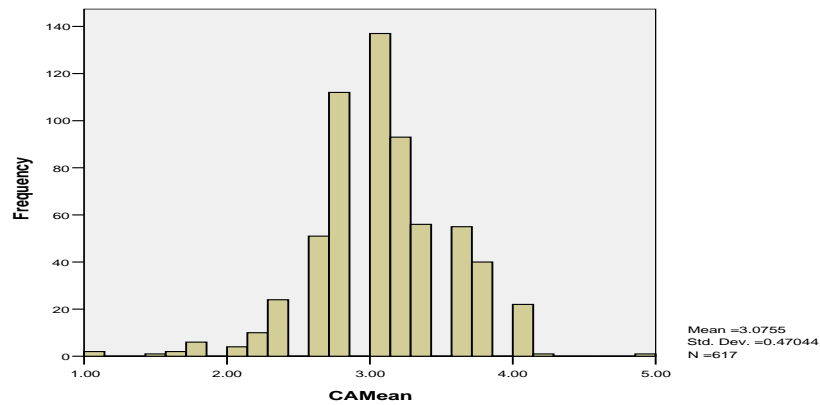


FIGURE 4.11 Histogram of Cultural Awareness as Measured by the CABI

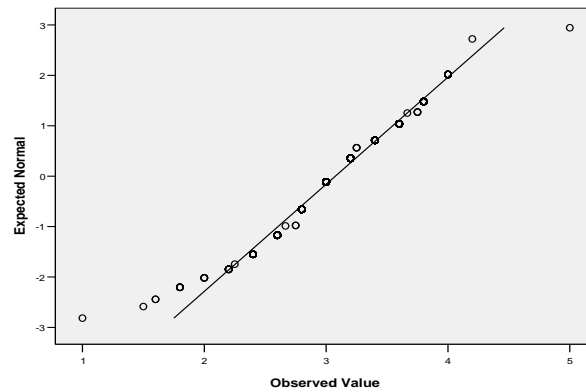


FIGURE 4.12 Normal Q-Q Plot of Cultural Awareness as Measured by the CABI

Further testing included the Levene's Test which indicated the variances were the same for the two groups of teachers' perceptions of the factor, Cultural Awareness. The Kruskal-Wallis value was denoted as designating no significant difference between the two groups of teachers' perceptions of the factor, Cultural Awareness (Table 4.13). Both groups appeared to be in agreement with the factor, Cultural Awareness.

TABLE 4.13 Tests of Statistical Differences of Teacher's Perceptions of Cultural Awareness as Measured by the CABI

Groups	N	Percent	Analyses	Test Values
Pre-K through Second			Mean	3.08
Grade Teachers'	390	64	SD	0.44
Perceptions			Median	3.00
Third through Fourth			Mean	3.04
Grade Teachers'	216	36	SD	0.50
Perceptions			Median	3.00
			Levene's Test	0.14
			Kruskal-Wallis	0.32
TOTALS	607	100		

Curriculum and Instruction

Curriculum and Instruction respondents numbered 606 of Pre-K through fourth grade teachers. Perceptions of 390 Pre-K through second grade teachers and 216 third through fourth grade teachers' perceptions of the factor, A mean of both groups was calculated at 3.03 for the factor, Curriculum and Instruction indicating an agreement to the items in the factor Curriculum and Instruction. The mean was then compared to a 5% Trimmed Mean of 3.03. The mean and the 5% Trimmed Mean are the same, concluding the outliers failed to have a significant effect on the mean, indicating an agreement to the factor Curriculum and Instruction by Pre-K and second grade teachers and third and fourth grade teachers (Table 4.14).

TABLE 4.14 Normal Distribution of Curriculum and Instruction
as Measured by the CABI

Tests	Values
Mean	3.03
5 % Trimmed Mean	3.03
Standard Deviation	0.46
Skewness	0.05
Kurtosis	-0.09
Kolmogorov-Smirnov	0.00

The Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test indicated a significance of 0.00, which specified the violation of the assumption of normality. Moreover, the Skewness statistic were calculated, and designated a negative skew (Pallant, 2007) (Table 4.14). The Kurtosis failed to indicate a central peak as exemplified on the histogram (Figure 4.13). In addition the Normal Q-Q Plot failed to designate a normal distribution as demonstrated in Figure 4.14.

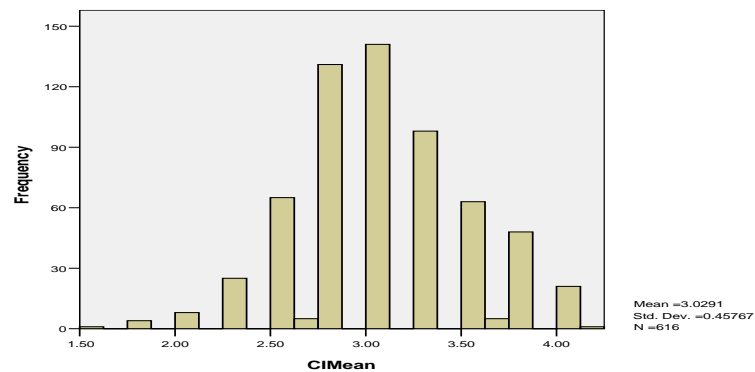


FIGURE 4.13 Histogram of Curriculum and Instruction as Measured by the CABI

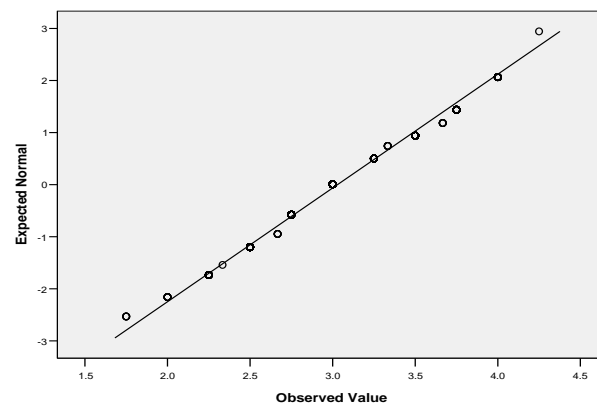


FIGURE 4.14 Normal Q-Q Plot of Curriculum and Instruction as Measured by the CABI

The Levene's Test result suggested the variances were the same for the two groups of teachers' perceptions of the factor, Curriculum and Instruction. The Kruskal-Wallis value indicated that no significant difference existed between the two groups of teachers' perceptions of Curriculum and Instruction (Table 4.15).

TABLE 4.15 Tests of Statistical Differences of Teacher's Perceptions of Curriculum and Instruction as Measured by the CABI

Groups	N	Percent	Analyses	Test Values
Pre-K through Second Grade Teachers' Perceptions	390	64	Mean SD Median	3.03 0.45 3.00
Third through Fourth Grade Teachers' Perceptions	216	36	Mean SD Median	3.01 0.44 3.00
			Levene's Test	0.29
			Kruskal- Wallis	0.78
TOTALS	606	100		

Cultural Sensitivity

Prior to analysis, it was determined that wording of the three items measuring Cultural Sensitivity were “reversed to help prevent response bias” (Pallant, 2007, p.83). These statements included number 46, 47, and 48 which were reversed so higher scores indicated higher levels of agreement by the respondents (Pallant, 2007).

Cultural Sensitivity respondents totaled 603 of Pre-K through fourth grade teachers. In determining whether statistical significant differences occurred, 392 Pre-K through second grade teachers and the 211 third through fourth grade teachers’ responded to the specific items of the CABI related to Cultural Sensitivity were analyzed. A mean of 1.74 was calculated for the Cultural Sensitivity factor appearing to imply a strong disagreement with the items of the factor. When the mean were compared to a 5% Trimmed Mean of 1.72, it concluded that the outliers failed to have a significant effect on the mean (Table 4.16). However, further findings indicated Pre-K through second grade teacher respondents were in disagreement to the constructs of the factor Cultural Sensitivity, while third through fourth grade teacher respondents were in strong disagreement to the construct of Cultural Sensitivity.

TABLE 4.16 Normal Distribution of Cultural Sensitivity
as Measured by the CABI

Tests	Values
Mean	1.74
5 % Trimmed Mean	1.72
Standard Deviation	0.56
Skewness	0.49
Kurtosis	0.04
Kolmogorov-Smirnov	0.00

To analyze the distribution of the Cultural Sensitivity responses to the CABI, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test indicated a violation of the assumption of normality. In addition, the Skewness statistic designated a positive skew, thereby, indicating lower values (Pallant, 2007) (Table 4.16). The Kurtosis value failed to indicate a central peak as noted on the histogram (Figure 4.15). Additionally, the Normal Q-Q Plot failed to indicate a normal distribution as seen in Figure 4.16, thereby indicating lower values for the teachers' perceptions for the items measuring Cultural Sensitivity.

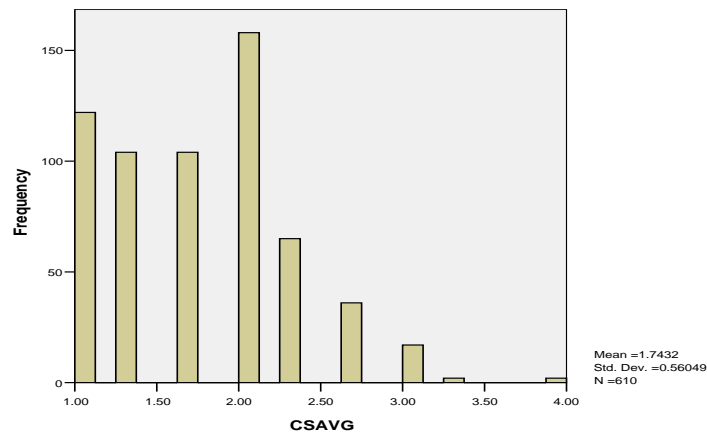


FIGURE 4.15 Histogram of Cultural Sensitivity as Measured by the CABI

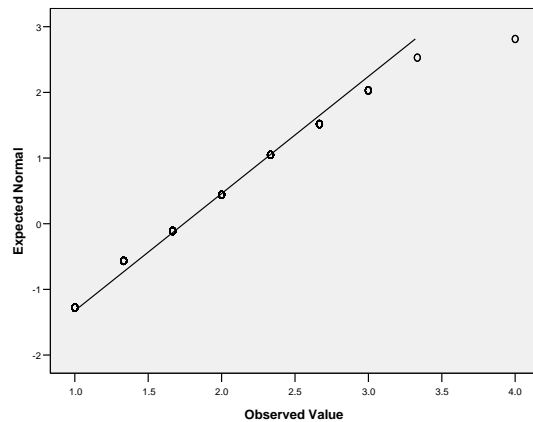


FIGURE 4.16 Normal Q-Q Plot of Cultural Sensitivity as Measured by the CABI

To examine whether a statistically significant difference existed between Pre-K through second grade and third through fourth grade teachers' perceptions of Cultural Sensitivity, the mean and medians were examined. Both Pre-K through second grade

teachers' perceptions and third through fourth grade teachers' perceptions measured similar means. Both groups of teachers disagree with the items measuring Cultural Sensitivity. According to the Levene's Test, the variances were also similar for the two groups of teachers' perceptions regarding Cultural Sensitivity, thereby, indicating no differences.

The Kruskal-Wallis value of $p = 0.03$ numbered less than $p < 0.05$; thereby indicating a significant difference between the Pre-K through second grade teachers' perceptions and third through fourth grade teachers' perceptions of the factor, Cultural Sensitivity, thus indicating further investigation was needed (Table 4.17).

Therefore, the Mean Ranks of the groups' responses were inspected. According to Pallant (2007), the group having the highest overall ranking, and corresponding to the highest score on the continuous variable, will indicate the group perceiving the higher level of Cultural Sensitivity (Pallant, 2007, p. 295). The Mean Rank of Pre-K through second grade teacher's perceptions was computed at 317.1, whereas the Mean Rank of third through fourth grade teachers' perceptions was calculated at 284.1. Based on these results, the Pre-K through second grade teachers' perceptions of Cultural Sensitivity indicated a higher Mean Rank than third through fourth grade teachers. However, findings also indicated that while the Pre-K through second grade teachers' perceptions disagreed with the items measuring the factor, Cultural Sensitivity, while third through fourth grade teachers' perceptions were in strong disagreement with those items.

TABLE 4.17 Tests of Statistical Differences of Teacher's Perceptions of
Cultural Sensitivity as Measured by the CABI

Groups	N	Percent	Analyses	Test Values
Pre-K through Second			Mean	1.78
Grade Teachers'	392	65	SD	0.56
Perceptions			Median	1.67
Third through Fourth			Mean	1.68
Grade Teachers'	211	35	SD	0.55
Perceptions			Median	1.67
			Levene's Test	0.44
			Kruskal- Wallis	0.03
TOTALS	603	100		

Teacher Efficacy

Prior to analysis, some items measuring Teacher Efficacy were reversed scored due to their wording. The wording of item number 23, 25, 49, and 53 of Teacher Efficacy were "reversed to help prevent response bias" (Pallant, 2007, p. 83). These

statements were reversed scored “so that high scores indicate high levels of agreement” by the respondents (Pallant, 2007, p. 83).

In addition, to determine whether statistically significant differences existed between the 392 Pre-K through second grade teachers’ perceptions and the 216 third through fourth grade teachers’ perceptions of the factor, Teacher Efficacy, responses to the specific items of the CABI related to Teacher Efficacy were analyzed. A mean of the factor was calculated at 2.47 appearing to indicate a disagreement with those items. When the mean was compared to the 5% Trimmed Mean of 2.46, it was concluded that the outliers failed to have a significant effect on the mean. Therefore, the combined group of teachers’ perceptions appeared to disagree with the items of the factor, Teacher Efficacy (Table 4.18).

TABLE 4.18 Normal Distribution of Teacher Efficacy
as Measured by the CABI

Tests	Values
Mean	2.47
5 % Trimmed Mean	2.46
Standard Deviation	0.48
Skewness	0.12
Kurtosis	0.35
Kolmogorov-Smirnov	0.00

To examine the distribution of the responses measuring Teacher Efficacy, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test specified the violation of the assumption of normality. Further, the Skewness statistic designated a negative skew on the histogram indicating lower scores (Pallant, 2007) (Table 4.18). The Kurtosis value failed to indicate a central peak as indicated on the histogram (Figure 4.17). In addition, the Normal Q-Q Plot failed to indicate a normal distribution as shown in Figure 4.18.

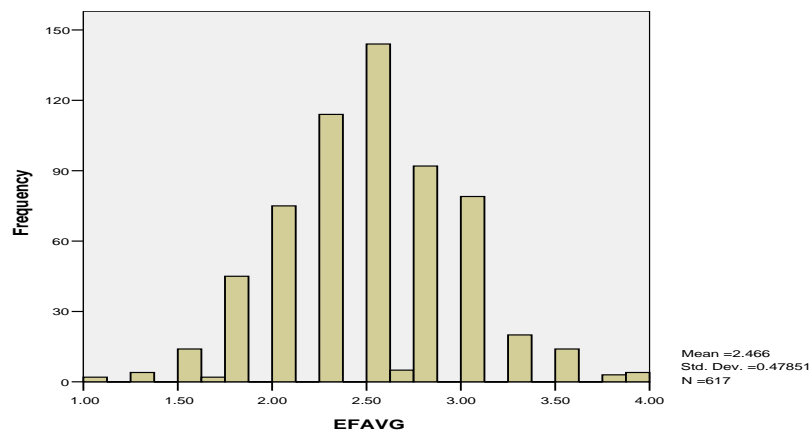


FIGURE 4.17 Histogram of Teacher Efficacy as Measured by the CABI

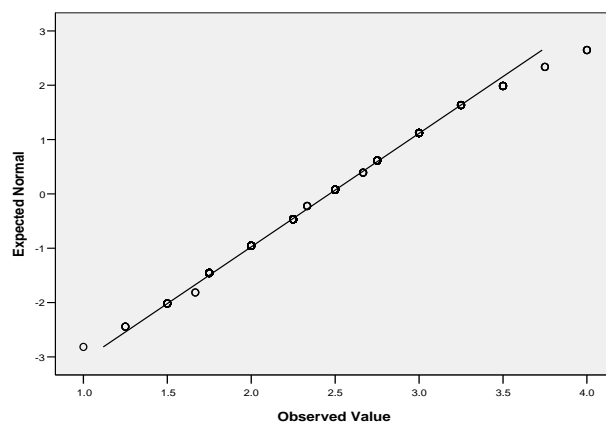


FIGURE 4.18 Normal Q-Q Plot of Teacher Efficacy as Measured by the CABI

To determine if a statistically significant difference existed between 392 Pre-K through second grade teachers' perceptions and 216 third through fourth grade teachers' perceptions of the factor, Teacher Efficacy, as measured by the CABI, the mean and medians were examined. The mean of Pre-K through second grade teachers' perceptions measured 2.44 denoting a disagreement with the items of the factor, Teacher Efficacy. However, the mean for the third through fourth grade teachers was calculated at 2.51, designating an agreement with the items of the factor, Teacher Efficacy (Table 4.19).

To examine the distribution of the responses to the CABI, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test specified the violation of the assumption of normality. Further, the Skewness statistic designated a slightly negative skew on the histogram indicating lower scores (Pallant, 2007) (Table 4.19). The Kurtosis value failed to indicate a central peak as indicated on the histogram (Figure 4.17). In addition, the Normal Q-Q Plot failed to indicate a normal distribution as shown in Figure 4.18.

TABLE 4.19 Tests of Statistical Differences of Teacher's Perceptions of Teacher Efficacy as Measured by the CABI

Groups	N	Percent	Analyses	Test Values
Pre-K through Second			Mean	2.44
Grade Teachers'	392	64	SD	0.45
Perceptions			Median	2.50
Third through Fourth			Mean	2.51
Grade Teachers'	216	36	SD	0.52
Perceptions			Median	2.50
			Levene's Test	0.32
			Kruskal-Wallis	0.07
TOTALS	608	100		

In conclusion, based on the results of the Kruskal-Wallis Test, a statistically significant difference was determined between the Pre-K through second grade teachers' perceptions and third through fourth grade teachers' perceptions for the factor, Cultural

Sensitivity. However, no significant differences were found between the groups of teachers' perceptions of the other seven factors (TABLE 4.19).

TABLE 4.20 Factors of Kruskal-Wallis Values of Pre-K through 4th Grade
Teacher's Perceptions as Measured by the CABI

Factor	Kruskal-Wallis Values
TB	0.08
SC	0.14
CRCM	0.06
HCS	0.15
CA	0.32
CI	0.78
CS	0.03*
TE	0.07

*Indicates a significant difference at $p < .05$

The Kruskal-Wallis Test “assumes that the variable under consideration is continuous and that it was measured on at least an ordinal (rank order) scale” (Hill & Lewicki, 2006). The items measuring the factor Cultural Sensitivity appeared to indicate that the medians for both groups were the same. Therefore, the interpretation of the

Kruskal-Wallis test is similar to that of the parametric one-way ANOVA, except that it is based on ranks rather than means. Based on these results, Pre-K through second grade teachers' perceptions of Cultural indicated a higher Mean Rank than third through fourth grade teachers. Thus, findings indicated the Pre-K through second grade teachers had a higher Mean Rank than the third through fourth grade teachers signifying Pre-K through second grade were more culturally sensitive.

The purpose of this study was to examine archival data collected from the administration of the Cultural Awareness and Belief Inventory (CABI) (Webb-Johnson & Carter, 2005) in an urban district located in the southwestern United States. Further, this study investigated the differences between the perceptions of the teachers who are responsible for their students' test scores and those teachers employed in grades in which their students are not given state-mandated tests.

TABLE 4.21 Means and Standard Deviations of Pre-K through 4th Grade,
Teachers' Perceptions of Eight Factors Measured by the CABI

Groups	Pre-K-4 th Mean	Pre-K-4 th SD	Pre-2 nd Mean	Pre-K-2 nd SD	3 rd -4 th Mean	3 rd -4 th SD
TB	2.37	.35	2.39	.35	2.34	.36
SC	3.32	.50	3.33	.50	3.28	.49
CRCM	3.36	.58	3.33	.58	3.40	.55
HCS	2.92	.45	2.92	.45	2.90	.43
CA	3.08	.47	3.08	.44	3.04	.50
CI	3.03	.46	3.03	.45	3.01	.44
CS	1.74	.56	1.78	.56	1.68	.55
TE	2.47	.48	2.44	.45	2.51	.52

Summary

This chapter provided an analysis of this descriptive study using the archival data collected from the Cultural Awareness and Beliefs Inventory (CABI). The elementary teachers responding to the CABI were employed by an urban school district located in southwestern region of the United States.

Descriptive analyses were utilized to calculate whether statistically significant differences were present between 399 Pre-K through second grade teachers' perceptions and 219 third through fourth grade teachers' perceptions. The Kruskal-Wallis statistical test indicated a statistically significance difference between the Pre-K through second grade teachers' perceptions and the third through fourth grade teachers' perceptions of Cultural Sensitivity. However, no statistical significant findings were determined between the two groups of teachers' perceptions of the other seven factors measured by the Cultural Awareness and Beliefs Inventory. Accordingly the Mean Ranks of Pre-K through second grade teachers and third through fourth grade teachers were examined indicating Pre-K through second grade teachers had a higher Mean Rank than the third through fourth grade teachers, thus signifying more cultural sensitivity.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

More than 2 million teachers will be needed by 2012 (NCTAF, 2003) to replace retiring teachers and serve the increasing number of students representing diverse populations (Darling-Hammond & Sykes, 2003). According to Howey (2002), urban schools have higher enrollments of students of color than those of suburban or rural schools. Claycomb (2000) emphasized urban schools serve 75 percent of students of color, 40 percent of the nation's children of poverty and 40 percent of students with limited English proficiency.

Learning standards and goals set by each state and school district are required to meet adequate yearly progress (AYP) as mandated by the NCLB Act (USDOE, 2009). Teachers play significant roles in teaching and designing the instruction to meet mandated state and federal standards for their students. The NCLB Act of 2001 required states to establish standards so that grade level curriculum is taught throughout public schools (USDOE, 2001). Additionally, NCLB Act requires every student to be reading and solving math problems at or above their grade level by 2014. Through mastering these standards, all students can be successful.

Authentic assessments are more appropriate for assessing younger elementary students. These include a systematic documentation through caregivers monitoring and observing the natural behaviors of young children overtime (Bagnato, 2007). Authentic assessments, such as portfolios and check lists, are used to monitor the mastery of specific skills, or standards, and determine whether re-teaching is needed. Researchers

have found that this type of assessment is used because standardized assessments may yield less accurate information about the accomplishments Pre-K through second grade students (Bell & Barnett, 1999; Costello & Zarowin, 2002; Neisworth & Bagnato, 2004).

High-stakes testing and accountability policies, stimulated in part by the 2001 passage of No Child Left Behind Act (Heilig & Darling-Hammond, 2008), have been expanded in states and districts nationwide. Due to these mandates, teachers are dealing with the stresses of high-stakes testing and teacher evaluation. Moreover, the pressures of meeting these standards are being felt from the top down (Perreault, 2000). Teachers, working at grade levels in which students are tested, appear to be more anxious about the academic and emotional preparation of their students to show mastery of the standards, than those teachers employed in grades in which students are not tested (Jones, Jones, Hardin, Chapman, Yarbrough & Davis, 1999). Without a sense of emotional support, teachers find difficulty in changing their practices to meet the demands of high-stakes testing due to elevated stress levels (Diamond & Spillane, 2004).

Gollnick and Chinn (1986) stated “educators today are faced with an overwhelming challenge to prepare students from diverse cultural backgrounds to live in a rapidly changing society and world (p. 2). Teacher perceptions and attitudes toward teaching culturally, linguistically, economically, ethnically, diverse (CLEED) (P. Larke, personal communication, 2002) students are based on teachers’ beliefs. Therefore, it is crucial to investigate teachers’ perceptions of teaching CLEED students since effective teachers are directly attributed to student achievement (Banks, 1997).

The purpose of this study was to examine archival data collected from the administration of the Cultural Awareness and Belief Inventory (CABI) (Webb-Johnson & Carter, 2005) in an urban district located in the southwestern United States. The study examined whether differences exist between Pre-K through second grade urban teachers' perceptions and third through fourth grade urban teachers' perceptions of cultural awareness and beliefs as measured by the CABI in one urban district.

Of the respondents, 399 Pre-K through second grade teachers' perceptions and 219 third through fourth grade teachers' perceptions of eight factors were measured by the CABI. These factors included: A) Teacher Beliefs, B) School Climate, C) Culturally Responsive Classroom Management, D) Home and Community Support, E) Cultural Awareness, F) Curriculum and Instruction, G) Cultural Sensitivity and H) Teacher Efficacy (Roberts-Walter, 2007). Further, by comparing the perceptions of the Pre-K through second grade teachers and those of the third through fourth grade teachers, this study investigated the differences between the perceptions of the teachers held responsible for their students' test scores and those teachers employed in grades in which students are not given state-mandated tests.

Research Question

What is the difference between Pre-K through second grade teachers' perceptions and third grade through fourth grade teachers' perceptions of Cultural Awareness and Beliefs in one urban district?

The difference between the Pre-K through second grade teachers' perceptions and the third through fourth grade teachers' perceptions was indicated in only one factor

of the eight measured by the CABI. A difference in both groups' perceptions was determined for the factor, Cultural Sensitivity.

Powell (1996) reported that teachers, who are not culturally sensitive, lack in the use of culturally relevant instructional activities. These activities involve all students when engaging in meaningful learning. Teachers' negative biases affect student's self-esteem and academic success (Cooper, 2002). These provide inaccurate impressions of students representing diverse populations (Cooper, 2002; Irvine, 1998). Teachers, who are negatively biased, viewed diverse students as being less engaged and difficult to motivate toward academic success (Ferguson, 1998). However, teachers are responsible for teaching the codes and cultures of power to all students for greater academic achievement (Delpit, 1995).

Culturally sensitive teachers utilize culturally responsive pedagogy in their classrooms and include the students' culture, as well as their own, as teaching tools (Pence & Macgillivray, 2008; Powell, 1996). Researchers maintain that establishing a trusting classroom environment, including integrated meaningful activities that address all students' learning styles, being aware of the students' cultures and infusing cultural mores within classroom management techniques empowers students to become academically successful (Cummins, 1986; Haberman, 1991; Montgomery, 2001; Turner, 2005).

Recommendations

Based on the literature review and the results of this study, the following recommendations are discussed.

Recommendations include providing leadership interventions to guide faculty in activities which promote cultural pedagogy and sensitivity, while becoming more aware and critically reflective of themselves (Cooper, 2003). Additionally, teachers need experiences in acknowledging and understanding their own world views before they are able to understand the beliefs and views of their students, especially those representing cultures different from the teachers' (Bennette, 1993).

Recommendations also include offering teachers in-school support groups and teacher mentors who can provide ideas and support to teachers working with students representing culturally diverse backgrounds (Milner, 2001; Pence & Macgillivray, 2008). Furthermore, administrators can present inquiry and student-centered teaching strategies to faculty members, these instructional strategies are representative of teaching practices utilized by highly efficacious teachers (Bandura, 1986).

Additionally, recommendations include having teachers becoming more aware of the existence of cultural differences and similarities. Further, teachers should not assign values to cultural differences as being better or worse, right or wrong (National Maternal & Child Health Care Center on Cultural Competency, 1997; Stafford, Bowman, Ewing, Hanna, Lopez-DeFede, 1997).

Other suggestions include advocating the use of teachers' and students' cultural backgrounds as part of the school curriculum. This change encourages culturally relevant teaching (Banks, 2001; Gay, 2000; Powell, 1996). Furthermore, school leaders, could provide opportunities for authentic teaching experiences for teachers who do not exhibit culturally responsive teaching. Co-teaching with a teacher, who includes cultural

relevant pedagogy within their curriculum, can encourage appreciation, understanding, respect and sensitivity for cultures other than their own as well as supporting change in the co-teacher's teaching philosophy and instruction (Pence & Macgillivray, 2008; Powell, 1996).

Implications for Further Research

The following implications are based on the findings and conclusions of this study:

1. Replicate the study comparing the teachers' perceptions including those held accountable for students' test scores and those who are not held accountable for students' test scores of middle school or high school teachers.
2. Conduct a qualitative study of Pre-K through second grade teachers' perceptions and third through fourth grade teachers' perceptions of cultural awareness and beliefs based on the factors of the CABI.
3. Replicate the study in a different geographical region of the United States.
4. Conduct a quasi-experimental study, which provides an intervention of training and support in the tenets of culturally responsive pedagogy, of Pre-K through second grade teachers' perceptions and third through fourth grade teachers' perceptions.
5. Use the CABI to compare the responses of pre-service teachers, who receive training in culturally responsive pedagogy, with the responses of in-service teachers.

Summary

The difference between the Pre-K through second grade teachers' perceptions and the third through fourth grade teachers' perceptions was indicated in one of the eight factors as measured by the CABI. This factor was Cultural Sensitivity. The results indicated that the Pre-K through second grade teachers' were more culturally sensitive than the third through fourth grade teachers. No statistically significant differences were found to exist between Pre-K through second grade teachers and the third through fourth grade teachers in regard to seven of the eight factors of the CABI.

Teaching is based on both explicit and implicit personal values and beliefs (Grant & Sleeter, 1986). A teachers' belief system guides them in making decisions based on organizing a framework of learning, establishing patterns of meaning, conducting student s' evaluations and determining classroom behaviors and practices (Romanowski, 1997). Through teachers' perceptions, the success of students representing diverse populations can be compromised or promoted (Grant & Sleeter, 1986; Nieto, 2000; Spindler & Spindler, 1994; Song, 2006; Wolcott, 1997). Teachers throughout the country play significant roles in teaching and designing the instruction to meet mandated state standards for all their students.

Teachers' cultural biases can affect students' self-esteem and academic success. However, teachers, who are given the opportunities to participate in experiences focusing on cultures different from their own, appear to develop a cultural awareness and sensitivity (Irvine & Armento, 2001). These experiences often lead to the development of culturally responsive classroom teachers. Furthermore, research

provides evidence of students' success and school satisfaction as being influenced by teacher-student interactions in a caring, supportive relationship between the teacher and student through a positive classroom environment (Baker, 1999; Cooper, 2002; Grant & Sleeter, 1986; Haberman, 2002; Nieto, 2000; Song, 2006; Spindler & Spindler, 1994).

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APPENDIX A

Cultural Awareness and Beliefs Inventory

Please give responses to the following survey using your scantron sheet. Write only the name of your school on this sheet. After writing the name of your school on this sheet, begin with question # 1 on the scantron sheet. Questions 1 – 11 are basic questions about yourself. Question # 12 starts the actual survey about your perceptions.

This survey will assist us in understanding your perceptions of our current challenge in meeting the needs of “all” learners in your ISD. This is a voluntary survey and it is your choice to participate. Your responses will assist in constructing staff development that will meet the unique and immediate concerns of the district. It is important that your responses be truthful.

Do not write your name, all information from individuals will be kept confidential.

When completed, return the Survey and your scantron sheet to the designated person.

Write the name of your school here: _____

Basic information – write on scantron sheet:

1. Gender

- A. Female
- B. Male

2. Type of Degree

- A. Bachelor's
- B. Master's
- C. Doctorate

3. Years of Teaching

- A. 1-11 month
- B. 1-3 years
- C. 4-6 years
- D. 7-9 years
- E. 10 or more years

4. Current Grade Level

- A. Pre-K- 1st grade
- B. 2nd grade
- C. 3rd grade
- D. 4th grade
- E. None of the above

5. Current Grade

- A. 5th grade
- B. 6th grade
- C. 7th grade
- D. 8th grade
- E. None of the above

6. Current Grade

- A. 9th grade
- B. 10th grade
- C. 11th grade
- D. 12th grade
- E. Multiple

secondary

7. Certification

- A. Early Childhood
- B. Elementary
- C. English/LA/Reading
- D. Science
- E. None of the above

8. Certification

- A. Social Studies
- B. Mathematics
- C. Special Education
- D. Gifted/Talented
- E. None of the above

9. Certification

- A. Bilingual Education
- B. The Arts
- C. Physical/Health Ed.
- D. Technology
- E. Other – not listed

10. Ethnicity

- A. African American
- B. Arab American
- C. Asian American
- D. Bi-racial American
- E. None of the above

11. Ethnicity

- A. European American
- B. Hispanic American
- C. Native American
- D. Pacific Islander
- E. Other – not listed

Answer the questions on the scantron sheet using the following scale:

A= Strongly Agree (B) = Agree (C)= Disagree (D) Strongly Disagree

- | | |
|---|----------------|
| 12. I feel supported by my building principal. | A B C D |
| 13. I feel supported by the administrative staff. | A B C D |
| 14. I feel supported by my professional colleagues. | A B C D |
| 15. I believe I have opportunities to grow professionally as I fulfill duties at my ISD. | A B C D |
| 16. I believe we spend too much time focusing on standardized tests. | A B C D |
| 17. I believe my contributions are appreciated by my colleagues | A B C D |
| 18. I need more support in meeting the needs of my most challenging students. | A B C D |
| 19. I believe “all” students in my ISD are treated equitably regardless of race, culture, disability, gender or social economic status. | A B C D |
| 20. I believe my ISD families are supportive of our mission to effectively teach all students. | A B C D |
| 21. I believe my ISD families of African American students are supportive of our mission to effectively teach all students. | A B C D |
| 22. I believe the district has strong support for academic excellence from our surrounding community (civic, church, business). | A B C D |
| 23. I believe some students do not want to learn. | A B C D |

24. I believe teachers should be held accountable for effectively teaching students who live in adverse circumstances. **A B C D**
25. I believe there are factors beyond the control of teachers that causes student failure. **A B C D**
26. I believe the in-service training this past year assisted me in improving my teaching strategies. **A B C D**
27. I believe I am culturally responsive in my teaching behaviors. **A B C D**
28. I believe cooperative learning is an integral part of my ISD teaching and learning philosophy. **A B C D**
29. I develop my lessons based on Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills (TEKS). **A B C D**
30. I believe African American students consider performing well in school as “acting White.” **A B C D**
31. I believe African American students have more behavior problems than other students. **A B C D**
32. I believe African American students are not as eager to excel in school as White students. **A B C D**
33. I believe teachers engage in bias behavior in the classroom. **A B C D**
34. I believe students who live in poverty are more difficult to teach. **A B C D**
35. I believe African American students do not bring as many strengths to the classroom as their White peers. **A B C D**
36. I believe students that are referred to special education usually qualify for special education services in our school. **A B C D**
37. I believe it is important to identify with the racial groups of the students I serve. **A B C D**
38. I believe I would prefer to work with students and parents whose cultures are similar to mine. **A B C D**

39. I believe I am comfortable with people who exhibit values or beliefs different from my own. **A B C D**
40. I believe cultural views of a diverse community should be included in the school's yearly program planning. **A B C D**
41. I believe it is necessary to include on-going family input in program planning. **A B C D**
42. I believe I have experienced difficulty in getting families from African American communities involved in the education of their students. **A B C D**
43. I believe when correcting a child's spoken language, one should model appropriate classroom language without further explanation. **A B C D**
44. I believe there are times when the use of "non-standard" English should be accepted in school. **A B C D**
45. I believe in asking families of diverse cultures how they wish to be identified (e.g., African American, Bi-racial, Mexican). **A B C D**
46. I believe that in a society with as many racial groups as the United States, I would accept the use of ethnic jokes or phrases by students. **A B C D**
47. I believe there are times when "racial statements" should be ignored. **A B C D**
48. I believe a child should be referred "for testing" if learning difficulties appear to be due to cultural differences. **A B C D**
49. I believe the teaching of ethnic customs and traditions is not the responsibility of public school personnel. **A B C D**
50. I believe Individualized Education Program meetings or planning should be scheduled for the convenience of the family. **A B C D**
51. I believe frequently used material within my class represents at least three different ethnic groups. **A B C D**
52. I believe students from certain ethnic groups appear lazy

when it comes to academic engagement.

A B C D

53. I believe in-service training focuses too much on “multicultural” issues.

A B C D

54. I believe I address inappropriate classroom behavior even when it could be easily ignored.

A B C D

55. I believe I am able to effectively manage students from all racial groups.

A B C D

56. I believe I have a clear understanding of the issues surrounding classroom management.

A B C D

57. I believe I have a clear understanding of the issues surrounding discipline.

A B C D

Please answer the following questions with a written response on the back of your scantron sheet.

Question A. What is your greatest behavioral management concern as you reflect on your professional responsibilities and the learners you serve?

Question B. What racial, ethnic, and/or socio-economic concerns do you have as it relates to your role as a teacher?

Question C. What leadership concerns do you have as it relates to your ISD?

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